

# MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR • BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS



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Learning to Repair and Check Airplane Motors

This issue . . . Effect of minimum wage in cotton-garment industry . . .  
Woman domestics in Washington . . . Wages and hours in automobile industry . . . Union wages—  
Street-railway workers and truck drivers

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# MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR • BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

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## This Issue in Brief

### Wage structure in motor-vehicle industry.

The wage structure of the motor-vehicle industry reflects in large part certain fundamental characteristics of the industry itself. In 1940, more than half the automobile plants which employed some 90 percent of all the workers were operated by 11 large companies, and these were mostly located in the East North Central or "automobile" States. A survey of 322,941 workers in 167 of these plants showed that average hourly earnings amounted to 96.1 cents in May and June of that year and that the earnings of half the workers were within 9 cents of that average. The earnings rate in 281 parts plants was 83.8 cents per hour. Earnings increased about 17 percent between the spring of 1940 and November 1941, but the basic characteristics of the wage structure remained relatively unchanged. Page 279.

### International labor program.

Even during the war period the International Labor Organization has continued to function in a very important degree, as indicated by the attendance and discussions at the recent Conference in New York City. During the post-war reconstruction period the Organization's experience should be of still greater value in bringing about better labor standards and better relations between employers and employees. Possibly its field of interest and service will expand to cover broader fields of economic and social service. Page 305.

### Effects of minimum wage in cotton-garment industry.

The establishment of the 30-cent and 32½-cent minimum rates in the cotton-garment industry in 1939 and 1940 resulted in few displacements of workers, and most of the workers separated experienced little hardship in securing and adjusting themselves to new jobs. These adjustments were facilitated by the fact that the economic position of the industry following the fixing of the minimum rates was generally favorable. Page 318.

### Woman domestic workers in Washington, D. C.

Low earnings and long hours were disclosed in a study of domestic workers in Washington, D. C. The median daily time on duty of white women working full time was 12 hours and 50 minutes. Weekly hours ranged from 42 to 105. The median weekly cash wage for the entire group (part- or full-time workers) was \$8.10. Among the full-time resident workers it was \$9.35 for white women and \$8.85 for colored women. No additional allowances were paid where the worker lived out. Annual incomes ranged from \$260 to \$900 for whites and from \$156 to \$780 for Negroes. Less than half of the women had work the whole year; about a fifth worked from 2 weeks to less than 28 weeks during the year. Page 338.

### Characteristics of newly hired shipyard labor.

One-quarter of the skilled workers in shipyards hired during the first half of 1941 came from the ranks of the unemployed, and 6 percent were drawn from

other shipyards. Sixty-six percent came from the State in which the hiring shipyard was located, 21 percent from adjacent States, and only 11 percent from more distant States. Page 393.

#### *Workers on FSA homesteads.*

In its homestead program, the Farm Security Administration is testing out on a limited scale the relative effectiveness of various methods of attacking four problems of low-income industrial and agricultural workers. These problems are insecurity of tenure, poor living conditions, debt, and poor health. The article on page 360 gives a general picture of life on FSA homesteads and describes several individual homestead projects.

#### *General conscription of British manpower.*

Women as well as men are subject to conscription for service in the armed forces or civil defense as well as industry, under the terms of the British National Service legislation adopted late in 1941. Although women will not handle lethal weapons unless they volunteer, their conscription establishes a new policy. For the present, young women in the age groups between 20 and 30 years will be called for service in the order given. They will have the option of choosing between the auxiliary forces, civil defense, and specified industries. Those already doing vital work or service will be reserved from calling up. Married women are not affected. For men the military conscription age is extended from 40 to 50 years. Boys and girls between the ages of 16 and 18 are to be required to register. Page 385.

#### *Wages and working conditions of organized street-railway employees.*

Average hourly wage rates of union motormen, conductors, and bus operators was 79.2 cents in June 1941, according to the annual Bureau of Labor Statistics survey covering 59 cities. This average covers operators on local lines and also those employed on city suburban lines furnishing local service, but does not include employees of intercity lines. The index of hourly rates advanced 3.6 percent between June 1940 and June 1941, and on the latter date was 14.4 percent above the 1929 average. Page 463.

# MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW

## FOR FEBRUARY 1942

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### WAGE STRUCTURE OF THE MOTOR-VEHICLE INDUSTRY: PART 1<sup>1</sup>

#### *Summary*

THE wage structure of the motor-vehicle industry reflects, in large part, certain fundamental characteristics of the industry itself. The concentration of management is apparent from the fact that, in 1940, more than half the automobile plants, in which over 90 percent of all the wage earners were employed, were operated by the 11 large companies producing virtually all of the Nation's automobiles. Half of the plants are in the five East North Central States which comprise the "automobile region"; during May and June 1940 they employed 85 percent of the wage earners.

The industry is characterized by a high degree of mechanization, and the labor force therefore includes relatively large numbers of semiskilled workers. Virtually all of the larger establishments have concluded agreements with trade-unions. The level of hourly earnings in the industry has been relatively high almost from its beginning, and there is a marked tendency for individual earnings to concentrate about the general average. The earnings of 471,270 employees in the 448 motor-vehicle establishments included in a special survey made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in May and June 1940 averaged 92.2 cents, and the earnings of half these workers differed from the general average by 11 cents or less.

Wage levels in the motor-vehicle industry rose about 17 percent between the date of this special survey and November 1941. Because the increases affected the majority of the wage earners in a comparatively uniform fashion, the fundamental characteristics of the wage structure remained essentially the same until the early fall of 1941. This survey covered the country's largest single industry immediately prior to its complete reorganization for the production of war materials.

<sup>1</sup> Part 2 of this report, outlining data on the earnings and hours of workers in automotive-parts plants, annual earnings of motor-vehicle workers in Michigan, and information on the industry as a whole, will appear in a subsequent issue. The data for this survey were collected under the supervision of O. R. Mann of the Bureau's Division of Wage and Hour Statistics. The report was prepared by Harold R. Hosea, with the assistance of George E. Votava, under the general direction of Victor S. Baril.

Earnings in the automobile division of the industry are higher, on the average, than those in parts plants which are smaller and more widely scattered and show less concentration of management. The hourly earnings of 322,941 workers in the 167 automobile plants included in this survey averaged 96.1 cents, or 12.3 cents above the corresponding figure for 148,329 employees in 281 parts plants.

Earnings in automobile plants located in the "automobile region" were slightly higher in general than those in other areas. Average hourly earnings in this area amounted to 97.7 cents, and Michigan workers earned an average of 98.5 cents per hour. Geographic differences among establishments operated by the larger companies were relatively unimportant.

Weekly hours during the period of the study averaged 36.8, and average weekly earnings amounted to \$35.42. The annual earnings of 141,114 workers employed in Michigan motor-vehicle plants during at least a part of each quarter of the year ended June 30, 1940, averaged \$1,659, exclusive of earnings from employment not covered by the State unemployment-compensation law.

### *Purpose and Scope of Study*

Preeminent among American manufacturing industries and presenting the outstanding example of mass-production methods, the motor-vehicle industry has wielded a tremendous influence on American wage structure and has been the deserving subject of much research. The Bureau of Labor Statistics first studied wages and hours of work in this industry in 1919. Subsequent surveys of wages and hours were undertaken every 3 years to 1928, and biennially from 1928 to 1934.<sup>2</sup> The availability, after the early thirties, of the Bureau's figures on average hourly earnings and average weekly hours of work for the industry as a whole reduced the necessity for frequent special surveys, and no other detailed study was undertaken until May and June 1940. The results of the 1940 study are described in the present article.

The scope of the 1940 survey is not limited to the establishments included in the motor-vehicle industry as defined by the United States Census of Manufactures. The census definition includes "Establishments primarily engaged in the manufacture or assembly of complete motor vehicles, motor-vehicle chassis, bodies and such parts and accessories as gears, wheels, radiators, bumpers, shock absorbers, frames, horns, windshield wipers, etc.; and trailers for motortrucks and truck tractors. This industry does not include establishments manufacturing tires and tubes, springs, ignition apparatus, batteries,

<sup>2</sup> See *Monthly Labor Review*, March 1936 (pp. 521-533): *Wages, Hours, Employment, and Annual Earnings in the Motor-Vehicle Industry, 1934*. (Reprinted in U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Serial No. R. 356.)

starting and lighting equipment, headlights, sheet-metal stampings, hardware, etc." The data for this survey were collected from establishments classified in the motor-vehicle industry as defined above and, in addition, from plants whose principal products were automotive stampings, automotive electrical equipment, automobile engines and parts, automobile hardware, coil and leaf springs, and certain widely used types of accessories. Omitted from the survey (as well as from the census definition of the industry) are plants producing forgings and castings (except machined forgings and castings made primarily for use in motor vehicles), tools and garage equipment, tires and tubes, batteries, trailers for attachment to passenger cars, and products made in other industries for use in the motor-vehicle industry such as upholstery materials, bolts, nuts, and wire (in bulk). Data on the numbers and types of establishments included in the survey appear in a subsequent section (p. 285).

The data collected in connection with the 1934 survey revealed significant differences in earnings and employment as between those establishments which manufacture finished motor vehicles and bodies and those which produce parts and equipment for automobiles. The present survey therefore follows the procedure of the earlier study and treats these divisions separately. The term "motor-vehicle industry" is used to indicate the combination of the two divisions. Plants producing finished vehicles and bodies are grouped under the category "automobile division"; the term "automotive-parts division" includes establishments producing parts and equipment for new vehicles and for replacements.

Important changes in the motor-vehicle industry have taken place since the data for the present survey were collected. Substantial wage increases have been made, affecting the greater part of the wage earners in the industry; most of these became effective during the second quarter of 1941. Such changes are discussed in a later section dealing with the trend of employment, pay rolls, hours, and earnings. These recent wage increases are of considerable importance in an analysis of the industry's wage structure, but they are probably much less significant than other effects of the defense program which have involved radical changes in product and major shifts in the industry's occupational structure. Certain of these developments are discussed in the following summary of the characteristics of the industry. It may be noted in passing that the firms and establishments which comprised the motor-vehicle industry at the time of this survey no longer constitute a homogeneous group with respect to products, types of employees, or wage structure. The data presented in this report, therefore, assume added significance, at least historically, since they supply a picture of the wage structure of the country's largest single industry at the end of an era and just prior to a period of transition.

Any adequate analysis of the reorganized industry, as a whole, must await the further development of the changes necessitated by the war program.

### *Characteristics of the Industry*

The production of motor vehicles and parts has provided employment for some 4 to 7 percent of all the wage earners in manufacturing industries for the past two decades. The motor-vehicle industry in 1939 ranked first in number of wage earners employed as well as in value of products, according to the Census of Manufactures. Pay rolls in the industry totaled nearly 7 percent of the amount paid to all wage earners in manufacturing in 1939. In May 1940, the month during which the present survey was made, the motor-vehicle industry employed approximately 440,000 wage earners and maintained a weekly pay roll of more than \$14,000,000.

The production of automobiles on a commercial basis began with the turn of the century, and the principal problem of the industry until about 1920 was that of producing a supply of dependable vehicles sufficient to meet the rapidly increasing demand. By 1905, production had reached an annual rate of 24,000 passenger cars; over 180,000 were built in 1910 and about half a million were in use in that year. Almost a million vehicles were made in 1915, and the 1916 total was well over a million and a half. In the boom year of 1929, the retail cost of the 4,500,000 new passenger cars sold was about \$4,000,000,000, and more than \$2,500,000,000 was paid for used cars. Although the necessity for selling as well as producing automobiles became apparent in the early twenties, the marketing problem first assumed really serious proportions about 1929, and production was not maintained on the basis of the 7,000,000 cars originally scheduled for that year. With the coming of the depression, output declined steadily through 1932, and then rose to a total of 4,700,000 units (commercial vehicles and chassis included) with a wholesale value of more than \$2,800,000,000 in 1937. The total units produced in 1939 were slightly in excess of 3,500,000. During May 1940, approximately 390,000 units were produced, of which more than four-fifths were passenger cars.

Several hundreds of companies have been organized for the manufacture of motor vehicles and parts; 676 different makes of automobiles were registered in Massachusetts in 1916, but 12 manufacturers had produced three-quarters of the total. Industrial mortality in the field was enormously high and much of it occurred during the infancy of the manufacturing companies. During the last 10 years the "big three" (Chrysler, Ford, and General Motors) have made

about 90 percent of all the automobiles produced in the United States.<sup>3</sup>

More than 80 percent of the 400,000 wage earners in the motor-vehicle industry in 1939 were employed in plants in the five East North Central States (Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin). Michigan alone accounted for nearly two-thirds of the workers, and more than 90,000 wage earners were employed in motor-vehicle plants within the city limits of Detroit. New England, where the automobile was first developed, had 43 plants employing only about 2,300 wage earners in 1939. Concentration of the industry in the East North Central States is somewhat less apparent from the distribution of plants, although nearly half are in this area.

The motor-vehicle industry, particularly the automobile division, has consisted of two general types of establishments. Of the 1,054 plants reported by the census in 1939, almost three-fourths had fewer than 100 employees and were producing either specialized vehicles (ambulances, fire apparatus, etc.) or small parts and accessories. At the other extreme were 170 plants with 500 or more employees each; a substantial proportion of these were the vehicle and parts plants operated by the 11 largest companies in the field. The production of motor-vehicles and parts also has been essentially an urban industry. Well over half of the vehicle and body plants and about two-thirds of the workers included in this survey were found in metropolitan areas of 250,000 population and over. The parts plants were, in general, smaller and more widely scattered, yet half the workers in the parts plants studied were located in these densely populated areas.

Total payments to wage earners in motor-vehicle plants amounted to about 16 percent of the total value of the industry's products during 1939. This proportion was substantially below those in comparable industries despite the fact that motor-vehicle production, with its high wage level, ranked first among all manufacturing industries in total wages paid during that year. This apparent inconsistency obviously results in large part from the high degree of mechanization within the industry, a condition which was further reflected in the characteristics of the labor force. Semiskilled workers, particularly machine operators and assemblers, constituted a very large segment of that labor force.

Motor-vehicle wage earners were characteristically males. Females constituted about a fifth of the parts-plant workers, but in the automobile division, which was more than twice as large on the basis of employment, only 2 out of every 100 wage earners were women.

<sup>3</sup> For a detailed history of the industry with special emphasis on its organization and financial characteristics, see Kennedy, E. D., *The Automobile Industry; the Coming of Age of Capitalism's Favorite Child*, New York, Reynal & Hitchcock, 1941.

Organization of the workers within the industry was relatively slow in developing, but union agreements are now in effect in virtually all important plants of the automobile division and in most of the larger establishments manufacturing parts. Partly because of the fact that unionization was accompanied by the demand for abolition of piece rates, the majority of the wage earners were paid on a time-rate basis; less than a fifth were subject to any type of incentive system at the time this study was made. The most common type of shift differential was an additional payment of 5 percent, and most of the plants paid at the rate of time and a half for all work above 8 hours a day, 40 hours a week, or either, with double time for Sundays and holidays.

#### RECENT CHANGES IN THE INDUSTRY

The reduction of automobile production for civilian use late in 1941 and the transition by many plants to the manufacture of military equipment have, of course, produced widespread changes in the industry. These changes will be intensified in 1942 with the virtual termination of pleasure-car output.

Experience during recent months has demonstrated that the transition to a wartime production schedule will affect the various individual establishments quite differently. The manufacture of army trucks and small tanks has, in some cases at least, involved but moderate changes in productive processes. The production of aircraft bodies, shell and bomb parts, or machine guns and anti-aircraft guns, on the other hand, has typically required wholesale replacement of machines and equipment and a complete reorganization of production.

It is clearly impossible accurately to predict the effects of this reorganization upon the labor force of the industry, but certain general changes appear inevitable. In the first place, the essential retooling will involve increases in the relative number of tool and die makers, machinists, and other highly skilled workers; these additions are likely to be reflected in a continuation of the rise in average earnings within the industry. The workers formerly engaged in mass-production work, such as machine operators, assemblers, etc., will continue to be laid off temporarily pending development of line production for war equipment. The numbers of such workers subject to this dislocation and the duration of unemployment among them depend upon several factors. The production of automobiles for military and emergency civilian use will require relatively minor reorganization, and plants manufacturing such products as engine parts will experience little or no change. It follows that the effects of the shift upon the workers in these establishments will be unimportant. The extent to which labor is dislocated in plants subject to drastic reorganization obviously depends upon the speed and

smoothness with which the process is accomplished. One fact is nevertheless patent: to achieve the production levels planned will require not only the total manpower of the industry but substantial additions to it as well.

Certain general changes in the characteristics of the labor force can be outlined despite the fact that the details of the reorganization are not yet apparent. It is clear, for example, that the diversity of products to be produced by the reorganized and expanded industry will increase greatly. This trend will be reflected in a greater spread in the skills of the workers and, consequently, a decrease in the former high concentration of the earnings of individual workers about the general average for the industry. The proportions of highly skilled workers, as already pointed out, will increase and the semiskilled groups will become less important until line production of war equipment is developed. Furthermore, it is possible that the reorganized industry will require, at least temporarily, a larger proportion of relatively unskilled workers, a group which was comparatively small in the motor-vehicle industry prior to the defense program.

The recruitment of additional workers will be inevitable eventually, and, since the supply of skilled workers is limited, heavy additions to the semiskilled and unskilled groups and the necessity for training them are likely. At the same time, increases in the combat forces may well result in the employment of older workers (many of whom are skilled) who would not be in the labor market in normal times. Finally, the labor force of the reorganized industry is almost certain to be augmented by the employment of women who formed a relatively small proportion of the workers prior to the emergency.

The net effect of these changes, in the absence of unpredictable developments, will be to increase the spread of earnings in the industry. Earnings levels will probably be affected further by increases in overtime work, additional shifts, and increased hours.

### *Coverage of Survey*

As defined in the Census of Manufactures, the motor-vehicle and allied industries embraced 1,228 establishments in 1939, and in the period May-June of 1940 employed approximately 465,000 workers.<sup>4</sup> These establishments include, in addition to the 1,054 plants classified in the motor-vehicle industry proper (Census industry No. 1810), 90 automotive-stamping plants (industry No. 1472) and 84 plants producing automotive electrical equipment (industry No. 1640). A fourth (308) of these plants, which employed 95 percent of the total wage earners, were included in the present survey (table 1). The relatively small proportion of the total plants studied results from the

<sup>4</sup> This figure is derived by adjusting average annual employment for 1939, as reported by the Census, on the basis of the monthly employment indexes released by the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

fact that 598 of the 1,228 establishments employed fewer than 21 wage earners and were purposely excluded from the survey; nearly all the large plants and more than half those with 21 or more wage earners were surveyed.

**TABLE 1.—Plants and Estimated Wage Earners in Specified Census Industries, and Number and Percent Included in Bureau's Survey, May-June 1940**

Industry classification (census)	Plants			Wage earners			Number of wage earners included in survey <sup>1</sup>	
	Total (1939)	Included in survey		Total (1940)	Employed in plants included in survey			
		Number	Percent of total		Number	Percent of total		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Total	1,228	308	25	464,737	443,132	95.4	421,543	
Motor-vehicle industry (Census industry No. 1810)	1,054	276	26	436,113	428,297	98.2	407,056	
Automotive stampings (Census industry No. 1472)	90	19	21	9,431	3,829	40.6	3,426	
Automotive electrical equipment (Census industry No. 1640)	84	13	15	19,193	11,006	57.3	11,061	

<sup>1</sup> Differs from column 5 since employees engaged on experimental work and wage earners not employed on automotive products were ordinarily excluded from the survey.

<sup>2</sup> Includes 598 plants employing fewer than 21 workers and thus excluded from the survey.

<sup>3</sup> Includes 524 plants employing fewer than 21 workers and thus excluded from the survey.

<sup>4</sup> Includes 32 plants employing fewer than 21 workers and thus excluded from the survey.

<sup>5</sup> Includes 42 plants employing fewer than 21 workers and thus excluded from the survey.

In addition to the 308 plants included in these distinct census classifications, the Bureau's survey included 140 plants classified by the Census in other industries. These establishments, which employed a total of 61,825 wage earners, were producing automobile-body hardware, bearings, pistons and piston rings, transmissions, leaf and coil springs, and other parts excluded from the motor-vehicle industry according to the census definition. No attempt is made to relate the data from these 140 plants to any total for the country, since separate figures for such establishments are not available from census data. It is not possible, for example, on the basis of published census information, to segregate those plants engaged principally in producing automobile-body hardware from the general-hardware industry as a whole. Similarly, data for plants manufacturing motor parts for automobiles are grouped by the Census with those producing similar parts for marine, stationary, and airplane engines. The types of plants included in this group were selected in consultation with representatives of trade associations and manufacturers, and, when combined with the 308 establishments classified in the industry by the Census, provide an adequate basis for analysis of the wage structure of the industry as it is here defined.

As indicated above, the detailed analysis of the data collected treats the automobile and automotive-parts divisions of the industry separately. Of the 448 plants included in the survey, 167, employing 339,698 wage earners, were engaged in the production of finished vehicles (including passenger cars, trucks, ambulances, hearses, and commercial trailers), bodies, and body parts (table 2). The data on these plants (group A) are presented on page 295.

TABLE 2.—*Plants and Workers Included in Bureau's Survey of Motor-Vehicle Industry, by Type of Product, May-June 1940*

Type of product	Number of plants 1	Total wage earners em- ployed	Wage earners included in survey <sup>1</sup>
		2	3
Total	448	504,957	471,270
Vehicles and bodies (group A)	167	339,698	322,941
Parts (groups B and C)	281	165,259	148,329
Parts (group B) <sup>2</sup>	141	103,434	98,602
Parts (group C) <sup>3</sup>	140	61,825	49,727

<sup>1</sup> Differs from column 2 since experimental workers and wage earners not employed on automotive products were ordinarily excluded from the survey.

<sup>2</sup> Includes only plants classified by the U. S. Census of Manufactures as motor-vehicle, automotive-stamping, or automotive-electrical-equipment plants.

<sup>3</sup> Plants classified by the U. S. Census of Manufactures in industries other than motor vehicles, automotive stamping, and automotive-electrical equipment.

To permit comparison with census data, the plants included in the automotive-parts division are divided into two categories. Group B is composed of those parts plants classified by the Census in the three industries for which data are given in table 1. Group C includes the establishments classified by the Census in various other industries. These two groups (B and C) are treated as a single unit in the discussion of the automotive-parts division of the industry which will appear in a subsequent issue of the *Monthly Labor Review*.

Data on earnings and hours were transcribed by field representatives of the Bureau of Labor Statistics from pay-roll and other records in the plants surveyed.<sup>5</sup> With rare exceptions, data were collected only for wage earners working on automotive products; the number of workers included in the survey is thus less than the total number of wage earners employed in the respective plants. Central office and supervisory employees (except working supervisors) were also excluded. All data shown regarding clerical or office workers refer to persons employed in production departments. Plants employing 20 wage earners or fewer were ordinarily excluded.

Information on occupation, sex, method of wage payment, and number of hours and total earnings for one pay-roll period during

<sup>4</sup> The Bureau wishes to acknowledge with gratitude the cooperation of officials in the plants studied and the assistance and advice furnished by the staffs of the Automobile Manufacturer's Association, the Automotive Parts and Equipment Manufacturers, Inc., and the United Automobile Workers of America.

May or June 1940 were transcribed for all workers in plants employing 21 to 1,000 wage earners. In larger plants, samples varying from 10 to 50 percent of the workers were taken. For such cases, special sampling procedures were devised for the purpose of insuring adequate representation of all types of workers. The data for all plants sampled, as shown in the various tables, have been weighted up to the actual total automotive employment in the respective establishments during the pay-roll period selected for study. Average hourly earnings have been calculated by dividing gross earnings by total hours actually worked during the pay-roll period. The basic rates are, therefore, raised slightly as the result of relatively small amounts of extra earnings during overtime periods.

The period during which the survey was made (May–June 1940) represents neither a high nor a low point for the year. Industry employment indexes for the 2 months were 109.8 and 104.9, respectively, or almost midway between the low of 82.3 in July and the December high of 130.2.

### *Trend of Employment, Pay Rolls, Earnings, and Hours, 1923–41*

#### **EMPLOYMENT AND PAY ROLLS**

Employment in the motor-vehicle industry has tended to fluctuate in harmony with employment in the durable-goods industries as a whole (table 3). However, the changes in motor-vehicle employment have been more pronounced, a reflection, among other things, of the extreme sensitivity of the industry to general business conditions as well as the dependence of a major part of it upon the policies and fortunes of a relatively small group of manufacturers.<sup>6</sup>

The annual index of employment in the industry reached its highest level in 1937 when it stood at 128.3 and indicated an average employment of nearly 517,000 wage earners during that year. On a monthly basis, May 1937, with an index of 140.4 and an estimated total of more than 560,000 wage earners, was the peak (table 4). This figure exceeds that for the highest previous month, April 1929, by almost 50,000 workers. Employment in the industry was low throughout 1938 except in November and December, and the index of 75.8 for the year was the lowest since 1933. Increased demand and, later, anticipation of restrictions on automobile production in connection with the defense program resulted in rises in 1939 and 1940; the added effect of defense activities is apparent in a further increase in the level of employment to more than 540,000 in June 1941. Employment in establishments classified in the motor-vehicle industry for the pur-

\* The sensitivity of the motor-vehicle industry to general economic conditions is suggested by data collected in connection with the Study of Consumer Purchases (1934–36), which show that families with annual incomes between \$1,200 and \$1,500 spent about \$23.50 per year for the purchase of automobiles, while families with incomes twice as large spent between three and four times as much for automobiles.

poses of this survey continued to rise during the second half of 1941, but the fact that this period marked the end, at least for the duration of the war, of the industry as it existed formerly, makes these data of little significance so far as this study is concerned.

TABLE 3.—*Employment and Pay Rolls in Motor-Vehicle and Durable-Goods Manufacture, by Years, 1923-40*<sup>1</sup>

Year	Employment				Pay rolls			
	Motor-vehicle industry		Durable-goods manufacture		Motor-vehicle industry		Durable-goods manufacture	
	Index <sup>2</sup>	Estimated wage earners (thousands)	Index <sup>2</sup>	Estimated wage earners (thousands)	Index <sup>2</sup>	Estimated weekly pay rolls (thousands)	Index <sup>2</sup>	Estimated weekly pay rolls (thousands)
1923	100.6	404.6	104.1	4,008.9	100.6	\$12,703	103.2	\$103,421
1924	93.6	377.1	96.4	3,712.5	90.6	11,426	95.9	90,057
1925	105.8	425.8	99.5	3,831.1	108.8	13,736	100.9	101,157
1926	104.8	421.6	102.5	3,947.8	104.8	13,239	104.8	105,053
1927	91.9	369.6	96.5	3,714.9	93.3	11,789	98.9	99,049
1928	108.1	434.8	97.7	3,760.4	113.9	14,379	102.3	102,462
1929	111.3	447.4	106.2	4,089.9	111.6	14,094	111.2	111,374
1930	80.3	322.8	87.6	3,375.0	65.7	8,299	83.8	83,969
1931	71.0	286.0	67.7	2,607.8	53.4	6,740	55.6	55,731
1932	60.5	243.7	52.8	2,034.1	38.8	4,900	33.4	33,468
1933	60.6	244.1	57.5	2,215.1	38.3	4,835	36.8	36,867
1934	94.5	380.6	72.4	2,787.2	68.2	8,601	52.2	52,298
1935	110.4	444.5	79.8	3,072.1	89.5	11,297	64.1	64,206
1936	113.9	458.6	90.7	3,492.5	102.8	12,976	80.7	80,840
1937	128.3	516.7	104.3	4,017.2	124.1	15,663	102.4	102,559
1938	75.8	305.4	78.9	4,036.5	69.2	8,737	67.9	68,047
1939	97.9	394.2	90.2	3,475.2	97.5	12,299	86.2	86,334
1940	111.3	448.0	104.3	4,015.1	121.1	15,274	107.8	108,008

<sup>1</sup> Data from Bureau of Labor Statistics trend-of-employment and pay-rolls series.

<sup>2</sup> 1923-25=100.

Wide seasonal fluctuations have been characteristic of the industry almost since its infancy. Prior to 1935 there was usually a long and severe drop in employment during the autumn, and some attempts were made to devise schemes for rotation of industrial and agricultural employment to take up this slack. In 1935, the date for releasing new models was shifted from winter to fall. As a result, the single and severe seasonal slump was replaced by two more moderate contractions, one in August and another about the first of the year. Another advance in the model date in 1939 again shifted the period of low employment and distributed the slack season between July and August.

Instability of employment in the motor-vehicle industry prior to 1940 is also apparent from an analysis of labor turn-over. For every year during the period 1931-39, the separation rates in both the automobile and the automotive-parts divisions of the industry were almost twice as high as those for all manufacturing industries. In 1934, there were no less than 117.3 separations for each 100 wage earners on the average pay roll during the year. About three-fourths of these separations were lay-offs. Discharge and quit rates in the motor-

vehicle industry were not greatly in excess of those for manufacturing industries as a whole. As might be expected, accession (hiring) rates were also high—1½ to 2 times those for all manufacturing industries. Increased employment and the development of trade-union organization were reflected in significantly lower turn-over rates during 1940.

TABLE 4.—*Employment and Pay-Roll Indexes in Motor-Vehicle Industry, by Months, January 1935 to September 1941*<sup>1</sup>

Year and month	Employ- ment index <sup>2</sup>	Pay-roll index <sup>2</sup>	Year and month	Employ- ment index <sup>2</sup>	Pay-roll index <sup>2</sup>
1935: January	109.6	82.6	1938: July	53.1	47.4
February	119.1	98.8	August	48.0	47.0
March	121.1	100.9	September	64.9	66.3
April	121.5	104.9	October	86.3	91.3
May	118.0	94.1	November	101.9	107.6
June	108.7	83.7	December	106.8	107.4
July	102.0	76.8			
August	96.4	72.2	1939: January	106.1	101.3
September	85.1	64.6	February	104.4	97.3
October	106.4	87.5	March	103.8	97.0
November	117.1	104.5	April	101.8	99.5
December	119.7	103.8	May	93.3	88.0
			June	91.6	88.6
1936: January	117.8	96.2	July	76.4	72.9
February	113.5	84.3	August	70.4	75.0
March	112.2	95.0	September	98.7	102.9
April	115.3	110.1	October	107.8	113.3
May	116.9	112.2	November	102.3	106.0
June	115.5	108.3	December	118.1	127.9
July	110.7	100.4			
August	97.6	83.6	1940: January	115.8	119.9
September	89.6	77.4	February	113.1	119.1
October	109.8	102.1	March	114.4	122.9
November	128.5	127.2	April	112.0	121.2
December	139.2	137.2	May	109.8	111.1
			June	104.9	112.0
1937: January	125.3	108.8	July	82.3	80.5
February	127.3	122.7	August	85.5	96.1
March	131.8	133.6	September	112.2	125.1
April	136.5	137.3	October	125.1	149.2
May	140.4	145.5	November	129.8	150.5
June	138.2	136.6	December	130.2	145.0
July	131.0	124.9			
August	119.1	116.5	1941: January	128.5	147.7
September	112.2	106.0	February	130.1	159.6
October	134.0	139.3	March	131.5	163.1
November	133.5	126.9	April	132.4	147.3
December	110.5	91.5	May	134.1	170.6
			June	134.8	188.3
1938: January	84.7	64.4	July	126.9	158.0
February	82.1	62.7	August	109.3	137.3
March	79.3	62.3	September	123.4	158.9
April	72.9	63.3	October	128.9	176.6
May	68.6	56.8	November	129.7	175.8
June	61.5	54.4			

<sup>1</sup> Data from Bureau of Labor Statistics trend-of-employment and pay-roll series.

<sup>2</sup> 1923-25=100.

<sup>3</sup> Preliminary.

Aggregate pay rolls in the motor-vehicle industry have fluctuated in close harmony with changes in employment. The annual index of pay rolls reached the lowest point since 1923 in the year 1933 when the index reached a level of 38.3 (1923-25=100.0) and the estimated average weekly pay roll fell to \$4,800,000. In the relatively good years of 1928, 1929, 1936, and 1937, both employment and pay rolls were greater than in the base period, 1923-25. In 1937, however, employment had advanced farther beyond the 1923-25 level than had

pay rolls. Since August 1939 the reverse has been the case; pay rolls have been at a higher level, as compared with the 1923-25 period, than has employment except during 1 month (July 1940). A high level of pay rolls occurred in June 1941 when the index rose to 188.3 and weekly pay rolls amounted to \$23,800,000. The extremely rapid growth of motor-vehicle pay rolls can be seen by comparison with the year 1904 when an average of about 12,000 wage earners were paid a total of less than \$140,000 per week.

#### AVERAGE HOURLY EARNINGS

The level of average hourly earnings in the motor-vehicle industry has been relatively high almost from its beginning. Average hourly earnings in this industry have been roughly a fifth to a third above those in the durable-goods industries as a whole during the entire period for which comparable figures are available; in 1938 the difference was a third (table 5). The substantial increase in earnings during 1937 in part reflects the result of the trend toward unionization.

Between the period of this survey (May-June 1940) and November 1941, average hourly earnings in the industry rose 16.5 cents, or 17.4 percent. Changes in wage rates made during the last half of 1940 were not sufficiently important to cause any appreciable change in the average for the industry; the figure of 95.4 cents for December 1940 is, in fact, identical with that for the preceding June.

A rise of 1.5 cents between December 1940 and January 1941 and another of 0.5 cent in February reflect the first important change in a series which resulted from the terms of new union agreements effected during the first half of 1941. Data submitted to the Bureau by manufacturers indicate that somewhat more than 80,000 wage earners, or virtually all the employees of the companies reporting wage increases, were affected. The information available shows a flat increase of 2 cents per hour granted by the Chrysler Corporation,<sup>7</sup> a raise of 5 percent in the plants of two moderately large companies, and adjustments varying from 2 to 10 percent in several smaller firms. Except in a few of the smallest establishments, all wage earners in these plants were affected in a relatively uniform manner.

The later wage adjustments made during March and April 1941 were restricted principally to the smaller concerns. The increases varied from 4 to 18 percent, and, according to available reports, less than 10,000 workers were involved. With minor exceptions, the increases applied to all wage earners in the plants reporting changes. The relative unimportance of changes in these 2 months is indicated by the over-all figures on average hourly earnings which show an increase of less than 1 cent between February and April.

<sup>7</sup> Effective during the latter part of December.

TABLE 5.—Average Hourly Earnings, Weekly Hours, and Weekly Earnings in Motor Vehicle and Durable-Goods Manufacture, 1922–41

Year and month	Average hourly earnings (in cents)		Average hours worked per week		Average weekly earnings	
	Motor-vehicle industry	Durable-goods manufacture	Motor-vehicle industry	Durable-goods manufacture	Motor-vehicle industry	Durable-goods manufacture
1922	1 65.7	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
1925	1 72.3	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
1928	1 75.0	(1)	1 46.9	(1)	1 \$35.14	(1)
1930	1 72.4	(1)	1 34.5	(1)	1 25.01	(1)
1932	68.0	50.8	31.3	32.5	21.27	\$17.66
1933	59.3	48.5	35.2	34.7	20.96	17.80
1934	70.0	56.7	33.3	33.7	23.31	19.81
1935	73.9	58.7	37.1	37.1	27.41	22.72
1936	77.4	59.7	38.5	40.8	29.75	25.24
1937	89.1	68.6	35.9	39.8	31.94	28.09
1938	92.5	69.8	32.9	34.8	30.45	24.77
January	91.5	70.5	27.6	32.2	25.27	22.90
February	91.6	70.2	27.7	33.0	25.34	23.42
March	91.9	70.2	28.4	33.6	26.10	23.69
April	92.0	70.1	31.4	33.5	28.83	23.80
May	92.0	69.9	30.0	33.8	27.65	23.93
June	92.5	69.6	31.9	33.9	29.49	23.86
July	93.0	68.8	31.8	33.4	29.56	23.32
August	93.6	68.5	34.6	35.8	32.33	24.84
September	93.3	69.0	36.3	36.4	33.81	25.65
October	92.8	69.6	37.7	37.5	34.98	26.86
November	93.2	70.6	37.5	36.7	34.89	27.02
December	92.4	70.9	36.0	37.1	33.22	27.27
1939	92.9	71.0	35.5	37.8	32.90	27.83
January	92.1	71.0	34.3	36.1	31.55	26.53
February	92.4	70.9	33.3	36.6	30.80	26.78
March	92.6	71.1	33.3	36.8	30.87	27.02
April	92.8	71.0	34.9	36.6	32.33	26.92
May	93.1	70.7	33.5	36.9	31.18	26.82
June	93.3	70.8	34.3	37.4	31.94	27.26
July	92.8	70.2	34.0	36.2	31.50	26.31
August	93.5	69.9	37.7	38.4	35.15	27.92
September	93.4	70.9	36.9	38.2	34.41	28.15
October	92.2	71.3	37.7	40.1	34.75	29.71
November	92.2	71.5	37.2	39.6	34.25	29.41
December	94.0	72.7	38.1	39.6	35.81	30.04
1940	94.9	73.4	37.9	39.2	35.88	29.88
January	93.4	72.7	36.7	38.1	34.28	28.96
February	93.8	72.6	37.1	37.9	34.80	28.60
March	94.4	72.8	37.7	38.3	35.53	28.90
April	94.5	72.9	37.9	38.2	35.78	28.92
May	94.7	73.0	35.4	38.2	33.47	28.80
June	95.4	73.2	37.0	38.7	35.28	29.48
July	94.9	72.7	34.0	37.9	32.26	28.52
August	95.6	73.1	38.8	39.7	37.13	29.98
September	95.0	73.7	38.6	40.2	36.67	30.57
October	95.1	73.9	41.3	41.0	39.24	31.42
November	95.7	74.4	39.9	40.2	38.11	31.11
December	95.4	74.9	38.5	41.2	36.54	31.96
1941:						
January	96.9	75.8	38.9	40.6	37.66	31.93
February	97.4	76.2	41.1	41.6	40.06	32.90
March	98.2	76.8	41.4	42.0	40.61	33.49
April	98.3	78.5	37.0	41.5	36.36	33.54
May	101.4	80.6	41.0	42.5	41.56	35.57
June	106.3	82.2	43.0	43.1	45.70	36.90
July	106.6	82.6	38.3	41.5	40.79	35.84
August	105.7	83.0	39.0	42.6	41.14	36.52
September	108.5	84.3	38.7	42.3	42.20	36.79
October	109.1	85.3	40.7	42.9	44.32	37.96
November	111.6	86.5	39.3	41.8	43.84	37.64

<sup>1</sup> Data from special studies of the industry and based on a specific pay-roll period rather than on regular monthly reports.

<sup>2</sup> Data not available.

<sup>3</sup> Preliminary.

Major changes in wage rates resulted from the agreements concluded between the union and the principal manufacturers during May and June. In general, the increases amounted to about 10 percent and more than 300,000 workers were affected. The great majority of the adjustments were in the form of blanket increases. Typical of the adjustments were the 10-cent raise granted to the 160,000 employees of 61 General Motors plants, 8 cents to the employees of Hudson, Packard, Briggs, and Chrysler,<sup>8</sup> and similar increases in a large number of smaller companies. The Ford Motor Co. made adjustments varying from 5 to 15 cents. The Ford adjustments involved increases for about 53,000 wage earners, and were effected over a period of several months. These industry-wide changes resulted in sharp rises in average hourly earnings which reached \$1.014 in May and \$1.063 in June. It should be noted, however, that these general averages were also affected by extra earnings at overtime rates. Wage adjustments made in July were limited to relatively few of the smaller companies, and the increase in the industry's average hourly rate amounted to only 0.3 cent.

On the basis of the above discussion it is apparent that the description of the wage structure outlined in this report is generally applicable to the industry through July 1941; that is, to the end of the 1941 model year. While it is true that earnings have risen sharply, the increase has affected some 80 to 90 percent of the industry's wage earners in a comparatively uniform fashion. The increases on an occupational basis made to the remaining 10 to 20 percent introduce only minor modifications in the wage structure; these were principally of a sort which would tend to produce slightly greater uniformity of earnings among certain semiskilled and skilled groups.

Employment in the industry declined sharply in August in conformity with the usual seasonal drop at the end of the model year. The curtailment of normal output and the diversion of plant facilities to defense production renders interpretation of data for September and subsequent months difficult and inconclusive. It may be noted, however, that the "normal" activities of the industry, for all practical purposes, came to an end at the close of the 1941 model year. It is probable that the upward trend in average hourly earnings, which reached \$1.085 in September, \$1.091 in October, and \$1.116 in November, is largely a result of defense activities. Further, it is certain that the employment of the relatively large numbers of skilled workers essential to reorganization and retooling of the industry for the production of war material, together with increases in overtime and night shifts, will continue to exert an upward pressure on the hourly rate of earnings for some months to come.

<sup>8</sup> In the case of the Chrysler Corporation, this was in addition to the earlier 2-cent increase noted above.

## TREND OF EARNINGS BY OCCUPATION

Data on the earnings of individual occupational groups collected in connection with the Bureau's several special surveys of the industry indicate considerable uniformity in the trend for various occupations. The largest increases between earnings in 1922 and in 1940 are shown for laborers, inspectors, and tool and die makers (table 6). There appears to be little or no relationship between degree of skill and the extent to which earnings rates have risen. It should be pointed out, however, that these comparisons are subject to certain limitations. Changes in technology and in the nature of the duties performed by many occupational groups between 1922 and 1940 have greatly reduced the number of job categories which can be logically compared. Although it is believed that the occupational groups selected have remained reasonably comparable throughout the period, small differences should not, in general, be interpreted as significant.

TABLE 6.—*Average Hourly Earnings of Males in 26 Selected Occupations in Automobile Division, Motor-Vehicle Industry, in Specified Years*

Occupation	1922 <sup>1</sup>	1925 <sup>1</sup>	1928 <sup>1</sup>	1930 <sup>1</sup>	1932 <sup>1</sup>	1934	1940
Total industry <sup>2</sup>	\$0.662	\$0.729	\$0.756	\$0.733	\$0.638	\$0.730	\$0.967
Assemblers, axle	.675	.729	.755	.717	.602	.694	.971
Assemblers, chassis and final	.647	.694	.758	.681	.570	.720	.943
Assemblers, motor and transmission	.661	.747	.762	.725	.632	.745	.960
Crane operators	(*)	.726	.707	.673	.658	.685	.956
Cutters, cloth and leather	(*)	.803	.831	.798	.709	.857	.982
Die setters	(*)	.797	.849	.819	.741	.774	1.055
Dingmen	(*)	1.037	1.128	.975	.813	1.063	1.248
Drop hammermen, forge shop	.810	.957	.973	1.005	.800	.871	1.165
Forge shop workers, except hammermen	.698	.753	.735	.782	.679	.721	1.006
Gear cutters	.678	.746	.760	.740	.623	.778	.974
Hardeners and annealers	.676	.725	.749	.720	.618	.709	.975
Inspectors, testers, balancers, and straighteners	*.611	.687	.725	.748	.660	.724	.977
Laborers and stock handlers	.495	.570	.589	.589	.575	.613	.836
Lacquer and enamel rubbers		.871	.841	.746	.603	.841	1.059
Machine operators, group 1 <sup>3</sup>	.659	.727	.751	.713	.634	.714	.954
Machine operators, group 2 <sup>4</sup>	.700	.764	.792	.774	.667	.754	.987
Metal finishers	(*)	.851	.893	.738	.633	.867	1.048
Millwrights	(*)	(*)	(*)	.753	.688	.719	.983
Punch and press operators	.715	.718	.746	.717	.646	.693	.955
Sanders and rough-stuff rubbers	(*)	.843	.807	.702	.591	.723	1.001
Sewers and trim bench hands	*.650	.738	.793	.734	.495	.742	1.002
Sheet-metal machine operators and assemblers	*.656	.783	.807	.711	.574	.752	.949
Sprayers	.723	.850	.824	.733	.615	.783	1.011
Tool and die makers	.760	.875	.919	.887	.785	.899	1.194
Welders and brazers, hand	(*)	.810	.852	.757	.659	.787	1.028
Welders, machine	(*)	.792	.789	.735	.622	.743	.979

<sup>1</sup> Includes some workers in the automotive-parts division.

<sup>2</sup> Excludes office workers.

<sup>3</sup> Averages not available.

<sup>4</sup> Cutters, cloth and leather, included in sewers and trim bench hands.

Dingmen included with sheet-metal machine operators and assemblers.

Straighteners were not included when computing the average for 1922.

<sup>5</sup> Includes automatic lathe and screw, drill-press, and milling-machine operators.

<sup>6</sup> Includes boring-machine, grinding-machine, nonautomatic-lathe, and planer and shaper operators.

## AVERAGE WEEKLY HOURS

Average weekly hours in the motor-vehicle industry have tended to be slightly below those for the durable-goods industries as a group. In general, the differences in the two series are slight throughout the

period for which comparable data are available (table 5). Hours in the industry reached the high point of 43.0 in June 1941 but dropped to 38.3 in the following month. As a rule seasonal changes do not seem to have had any profound effect on the average hours of work. Instead, the fluctuations have been in volume of employment. Average hours during May and June 1940, the period of the present survey, were 35.4 and 37.0,<sup>9</sup> respectively.

#### AVERAGE WEEKLY EARNINGS

Average weekly earnings in the motor-vehicle industry were above those for the durable-goods industries as a whole for each year during the period 1932-40 (table 5). The differences ranged from 14 to 23 percent and were somewhat smaller than the differences in average hourly earnings because of the fact that the motor-vehicle industry has in general worked fewer hours per week than have establishments in the durable-goods industries. There are no outstanding deviations from the general trend of the relationship between average weekly earnings in the motor-vehicle industry and in the durable-goods industries except in April 1941 when the two averages were only \$2.82 apart. Earnings in the motor-vehicle industry reached their highest point (\$45.70) in June 1941 as the result of the general wage increases already referred to and also, presumably, because of considerable amounts of overtime payments during that month.<sup>10</sup>

#### *Earnings and Hours in the Automobile Division*

##### AVERAGE HOURLY EARNINGS

Hourly earnings of the 322,941 workers in the 167 automobile plants studied averaged 96.1 cents in May and June 1940 (table 7). The earnings of half the workers were within 9 cents per hour of the general average. Fewer than 5 percent of the workers earned below 72.5 cents an hour. This high concentration of earnings about the average is characteristic of a high-wage industry in which the majority of the workers are employed in the plants operated by a small number of large firms and in which the great majority of the employees are paid on a straight-time rather than a piece-rate basis.

*Regional differences.*—The five East North Central States, as noted earlier, contain the great majority of the workers in the automobile division of the industry; more than half the 167 plants and almost 85 percent of the workers studied were in this region. The hourly earn-

<sup>9</sup> The special-survey data show a slightly higher figure (37.2) because (1) the definition of the industry as used in the survey differs slightly from that used in the trend-of-employment and pay-roll series, and (2) proportionately more parts plants (in which average hours are higher) than vehicle plants are included in the survey sample as compared with the group of plants reporting monthly.

<sup>10</sup> The figure of 43.0 hours per week for the industry as a whole involves an average of somewhat more than 3 hours of overtime per week for each worker since the legal maximum of 40 hours was in effect.

ings average for this region was about 1.5 cents above that for the country as a whole; Michigan, with more than a fourth of the automobile plants and almost three-fourths of the workers studied, showed average hourly earnings of 98.5 cents. As might be expected, the tendency for the earnings of individual workers to concentrate about the general average is even more pronounced in Michigan than in the country as a whole.

TABLE 7.—*Percentage Distribution of Workers in Automobile Division, by Average Hourly Earnings and Geographic Division, May-June 1940*

Hourly earnings (in cents)	All divisions	New England and Middle Atlantic	East North Central					West North Central	Other divisions <sup>1</sup>
			Total	Michigan	Ohio	Indiana	Illinois and Wisconsin		
Under 37.5	0.2	0.3	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	0.1	0.1	3.4
37.5 and under 42.5	.1	.5	(*)	(*)	0.2	0.1	.2	.2	1.3
42.5 and under 47.5	.1	.4	0.1	(*)	.9	.2	.2	.2	1.1
47.5 and under 52.5	.3	1.5	.2	0.1	1.3	.3	1.0	.5	.8
52.5 and under 57.5	.5	2.2	.2	.1	1.9	.4	1.1	1.0	.9
57.5 and under 62.5	.6	3.0	.3	.1	3.4	.3	1.5	.6	.5
62.5 and under 67.5	1.0	2.7	.8	.5	3.3	1.9	1.0	1.6	.6
67.5 and under 72.5	1.4	3.2	1.2	.9	4.1	2.0	1.5	.9	1.0
72.5 and under 77.5	4.9	7.7	4.4	4.1	5.1	5.4	8.4	7.9	7.4
77.5 and under 82.5	7.4	8.8	7.1	7.2	8.9	4.8	5.7	9.2	8.9
82.5 and under 87.5	10.4	14.9	9.5	9.7	6.8	8.3	10.6	14.9	15.3
87.5 and under 92.5	14.8	17.7	14.6	15.0	10.6	14.7	10.7	12.8	14.0
92.5 and under 97.5	12.3	14.7	12.0	11.4	12.4	16.3	16.6	8.5	16.5
97.5 and under 102.5	16.7	8.9	17.7	17.6	15.7	17.1	23.8	18.5	13.0
102.5 and under 107.5	10.8	3.8	11.7	11.7	10.5	14.5	9.0	9.6	9.0
107.5 and under 112.5	6.9	4.8	7.3	7.4	5.7	8.0	5.1	6.4	3.9
112.5 and under 117.5	5.0	2.4	5.5	5.9	3.5	3.3	1.8	5.6	1.4
117.5 and under 122.5	2.5	1.4	2.7	3.0	2.2	.8	.7	1.2	.6
122.5 and under 127.5	1.2	.5	1.4	1.5	1.8	.4	.4	.2	.2
127.5 and under 132.5	.8	.2	.9	1.0	1.1	.3	.1	.1	.1
132.5 and under 137.5	.7	.2	.8	.9	.2	.1	.1	—	—
137.5 and under 142.5	.5	.1	.6	.7	.1	.1	.1	—	(*)
142.5 and under 152.5	.5	.1	.6	.7	.3	.1	.2	—	(*)
152.5 and under 162.5	.2	—	.2	.3	(*)	.1	.1	—	(*)
162.5 and under 172.5	.1	—	.1	.1	—	.2	(*)	—	—
172.5 and over	.1	(*)	.1	.1	(*)	.3	(*)	—	—
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of workers	322,941	29,712	271,151	229,845	15,185	15,399	10,722	8,921	13,157
Number of plants	167	30	89	45	19	10	15	12	36
Average hourly earnings	\$0.961	\$0.877	\$0.977	\$0.985	\$0.920	\$0.950	\$0.923	\$0.908	\$0.875

<sup>1</sup> Plants distributed as follows: Alabama, 2; California, 12; Colorado, 1; Georgia, 4; Kentucky, 3; Louisiana, 1; Mississippi, 1; North Carolina, 2; Oregon, 1; Tennessee, 1; Texas, 3; Utah, 1; Virginia, 2; Washington, 2.

<sup>2</sup> Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

The number of plants and workers in areas other than the East North Central States are, in general, too small to justify more than broad generalizations concerning earnings. It should also be noted that the automobile plants located outside of the principal area do not comprise a homogeneous group. They are, rather, made up of two types of establishments—the decentralized plants of large companies and a group of firms, most of which are relatively small, producing commercial bodies, trailers, and such equipment as busses, ambulances, hearses, and fire engines. Substantial amounts of this work are done on a special-order or custom basis. The wage structure in

the outlying plants operated by the larger companies tends generally to conform to that of similar plants located in the so-called automobile States, and the level is, with a few exceptions, substantially higher than that in the independent plants. This situation is reflected in the distributions of workers by average hourly earnings in all areas except the East North Central and is apparent in the minor peaks at or near the lower ends of the distributions (table 7). It also explains the close agreement between the average for the country as a whole and those for the several regions, none of which varied from the general average by more than 8.5 cents.

*Plant averages.*—The distribution of individual plants according to the average hourly earnings of workers also reflects the fact that data from a relatively small number of firms determine the statistical characteristics of the wage structure of this industry. Almost half the plants, which employed more than 85 percent of all the workers studied, showed averages above 90 cents per hour. Almost two-fifths of the workers were employed in the 29 plants in which hourly earnings averaged \$1.00 or more (table 8). Only 24 plants reported hourly earnings of less than 60 cents. These establishments were generally small, employing only about 75 workers on the average, and the entire group of wage earners in these plants amounted to scarcely more than a half of 1 percent of the workers surveyed in the automobile division of the industry.

TABLE 8.—*Distribution of Plants and Workers in Automobile Division, by Plant Average Hourly Earnings, and Size of Operating Companies, May-June 1940*

Plant average hourly earnings (in cents)	All companies		Companies employing—			
	Number of plants	Number of workers	5,000 or more		Less than 5,000	
			Number of plants	Number of workers	Number of plants	Number of workers
All plants	167	322,941	91	301,481	76	21,460
Under 40	3	274			3	274
40 and under 45	3	157			3	157
45 and under 50	7	608			7	608
50 and under 55	5	210			5	210
55 and under 60	6	627			6	627
60 and under 65	9	1,160			9	1,160
65 and under 70	6	1,162			6	1,162
70 and under 75	9	1,297			9	1,297
75 and under 80	5	2,444			5	2,444
80 and under 85	12	11,760	4	9,250	8	2,510
85 and under 90	23	24,392	16	20,306	7	4,086
90 and under 95	23	95,957	19	92,959	4	2,998
95 and under 100	27	160,905	24	56,978	3	3,927
100 and over	29	121,988	28	121,988	1	(1)
Average hourly earnings		\$0.961		\$0.972		\$0.825

<sup>1</sup> Workers of 1 plant included in interval 95 cents to \$1.

*Hourly earnings and size of operating company.*—Ninety-one of the 167 automobile and body plants surveyed were operated by 11 companies. These 91 plants employed about 93 percent of all the workers in this division of the industry. Average hourly earnings for the plants of the large companies, taken as a group, were 97.2 cents, or 1.1 cents above the figure for the entire automobile division. None of these plants showed average earnings below 80 cents per hour. More than 40 percent of all the workers employed by these companies were in the 28 plants in which hourly earnings averaged \$1 or above (table 8).

By contrast, the 76 smaller companies, employing the remaining 7 percent of the workers, showed average hourly earnings of 82.5 cents—14.7 cents below the figure for the large companies and 13.6 cents less than the average for all automobile plants as a whole. Plant averages for more than two-thirds of these establishments were below 80 cents per hour; these, as might be expected, were the smaller plants employing on the average only about 150 workers each. Four of the small companies showed average hourly earnings of 95 cents or more and, of these, only one averaged above \$1.00.

The concentration of management in this division of the industry and its effect on wage policy tend to offset the influence of such factors as size of community. The wage rates paid by the large companies vary but slightly from area to area, and a tabulation of earnings by size of community has little or no significance because its characteristics are largely a reflection of the types of communities in which the plants of the few large companies happen to be situated.

*Hourly earnings and size of plant.*—The close correspondence between size of plant and level of earnings among automobile companies is, of course, to be expected because of the concentration of management within the industry. Of the 167 establishments, about three-fifths (101) reported 500 or more employees each. These plants, however, accounted for almost 98 percent of all the workers in the automobile division of the industry (table 9). Nearly three-fourths of the workers were employed in plants which averaged 2,500 or more employees each. At the other end of the scale were 36 plants with average employment of 100 or less, and this entire group contained little more than a half of 1 percent of the workers. None of the units with 2,500 or more workers showed average hourly earnings below 80 cents, and 14 plants, with a total of more than 105,000 workers, had average hourly earnings in excess of \$1.00. Again, by contrast, only 5 of the plants with 100 workers or less showed average hourly earnings as high as 80 cents; the combined employment of the 5 small plants was only 223.

TABLE 9.—*Distribution of Plants in Automobile Division, by Plant Average Hourly Earnings and Size of Plant, May-June 1940*

Plant average hourly earnings (in cents)	Total		Size of plant in terms of number of workers						
	Employees	Plants	Under 51	51-100	101-250	251-500	501-1,000	1,001-2,500	2,501 and over
33 and under 40	274	3	1	2					
40 and under 45	157	3	1	2					
45 and under 50	608	7	3	2	2				
50 and under 55	210	5	4	1					
55 and under 60	627	6	4		2				
60 and under 65	1,160	9	3	1	4	1			
65 and under 70	1,162	6	2		3		1		
70 and under 75	1,297	9	2	1	5	1			
75 and under 80	2,444	5	1	1		1		1	
80 and under 85	11,760	12	2		4		3	1	2
85 and under 90	24,392	23		2	2	2	8	7	2
90 and under 95	95,957	23		1		1	9	8	4
95 and under 100	59,988	27				1	8	10	8
100 and under 105	112,869	23				1	5	4	13
105 and over	10,036	6					2	3	1
Number of plants		167	24	12	22	8	37	34	30
Number of employees	322,941		801	942	3,687	2,897	27,304	52,768	234,542

*Occupational differentials among male workers.*—More than three-fourths of the male workers in the automobile and body plants studied were employed in production departments; average hourly earnings for this group were 95.5 cents or 1.2 cents below the average for all males in this division of the industry (table 10). The average for maintenance workers was only slightly (0.9 cent) below that for production employees, while foundry occupations as a group showed earnings 4.2 cents under the general average. Tool- and die-room workers, with average earnings of \$1.168 per hour were, of course, the highest-paid group. The highest average per hour for any single occupational group was \$1.416 for working foremen in tool and die rooms; except for wages of helpers and apprentices, the lowest average per hour for males was 77.2 cents for janitors. Within production departments, the hourly earnings of males ranged from 81.5 cents for laborers to \$1.248 for dingmen. Despite this rather wide spread of 43.3 cents, the earnings of male production workers offer striking evidence of the concentration of individual earnings. The averages for 23 occupations, which included nearly half the total of 241,332 male production workers, were within 3 cents of the general average of 95.5 cents for the entire group.

More than a fourth of all the male workers were classified in the 28 occupational groups which showed average earnings of \$1.00 or more per hour. In addition to working foremen in tool and die and in maintenance departments, seven occupational groups, with nearly 20,000 workers, had earnings in excess of \$1.10 per hour. Included in this total were dingmen (\$1.248), drop-hammer operators (\$1.165), heaters in forge shops (\$1.158), tool, die and lay-out inspectors

(\$1.208), tool and die makers (\$1.194), other tool-room workers (\$1.111), and pattern makers (\$1.215). The 5,091 janitors with an hourly average of 77.2 cents constituted the only male group (except for apprentices) with earnings below the 80-cent level, and only six additional occupations showed hourly averages less than 85 cents: maintenance laborers (81.6 cents), miscellaneous service workers (83.9 cents), production-department laborers (81.5 cents), truckers and material handlers (84.7 cents), male sewing-machine operators (83.8 cents), and watchmen (80.7 cents). These seven groups with earnings of less than 85 cents an hour included about 37,000 male workers or 11.5 percent of the total. It may be noted, however, that nearly one-half of these 37,000 were truckers and material handlers whose average earnings were within 3 mills of 85 cents.

TABLE 10.—*Average Hourly Earnings of Workers in Automobile Division, by Sex, Occupation, and Geographic Division, May-June 1940*

Occupation	Total		East North Central		Other divisions	
	Number	Average hourly earnings	Number	Average hourly earnings	Number	Average hourly earnings
<i>Males</i>						
All departments	315,013	\$0.967	263,651	\$0.983	51,362	\$0.882
Processing occupations						
Assemblers, axle	241,332	.955	197,274	.970	44,058	.885
Assemblers, chassis and final	1,623	.971	1,509	.979	114	.874
Assemblers, motor	10,399	.943	12,341	.961	7,058	.911
Assemblers, sheet-metal, subassembly	7,130	.960	6,838	.964	292	.868
Assemblers, small parts	2,810	.957	2,501	.974	309	.825
Assemblers and trimmers, body	958	.891	923	.887	35	(1)
Assemblers and trimmers, body	22,725	.941	16,040	.967	6,685	.880
Balancers	663	1.011	649	1.013	14	(1)
Bench hands, machined parts	1,130	.913	1,021	.927	109	.788
Car loaders	1,245	.913	964	.913	281	.913
Clerical workers, factory	4,549	.892	3,722	.911	827	.811
Crane and hoist operators	1,690	.956	1,568	.973	131	.766
Cutters, cloth and leather	582	.982	561	.986	21	(1)
Die setters	1,242	1.055	1,184	1.069	58	.806
Dingmen	635	1.248	536	1.265	99	1.159
Door hangers	1,220	1.021	912	1.051	308	.931
Drop-hammer operators	1,320	1.165	1,238	1.192	82	.826
Foremen and lay-out men	3,163	1.005	2,386	1.122	777	1.017
Forge-shop workers, not elsewhere classified	459	.960	410	.995	49	(1)
Hardener and annealer helpers	714	.942	670	.951	44	(1)
Hardeners and annealers	1,690	.975	1,639	.977	51	.911
Heaters, forge shop	505	1.158	493	1.173	12	(1)
Helpers, processing occupations, n. e. c.	1,930	.891	1,640	.956	290	.528
Inspectors, tool, die, and lay-out	698	1.208	679	1.210	19	(1)
Inspectors, n. e. c.	10,346	.964	8,929	.968	1,417	.938
Job setters, machine	2,653	1.056	2,515	1.054	138	1.104
Laborers, n. e. c.	8,840	.815	6,795	.845	2,045	.717
Leaders and relief workers	5,791	1.025	4,611	1.034	1,180	.992
Metal finishers	10,322	1.048	7,728	1.081	2,504	.952
Operators, machining processes	28,976	.963	27,384	.969	1,592	.867
Boring machines	1,300	.981	1,291	.985	78	.914
Drill presses	8,254	.941	7,843	.947	411	.831
Gear cutters	1,853	.974	1,793	.977	60	.895
Grinding machines	6,099	.994	5,852	.997	247	.930
Lathes, automatic and semiautomatic	5,651	.973	5,348	.977	303	.908
Lathes, hand	1,146	.953	1,079	.958	67	.860
Milling machines	3,262	.953	3,061	.960	201	.856
Miscellaneous machines, n. e. c.	1,342	.905	1,117	.927	225	.798
Other processing occupations, n. e. c.	14,553	.912	12,275	.921	2,278	.865
Packers and craters	2,634	.859	1,748	.875	886	.830
Paint-shop workers, n. e. c.	4,011	.917	2,944	.942	1,067	.852
Painters, spray	4,489	1.011	3,009	1.040	1,480	.952

See footnotes at end of table.

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TABLE 10.—*Average Hourly Earnings of Workers in Automobile Division, by Sex, Occupation, and Geographic Division, May-June 1940—Continued*

Occupation	Total		East North Central	Other divisions	
	Number	Aver- age hourly earn- ings		Number	Aver- age hourly earn- ings
<b>Processing occupations—Continued.</b>					
Platers	449	\$0.929	432	\$0.932	17
Polishers and buffers, plating	771	1.072	750	1.076	21
Polishers and rubbers, paint	2,478	1.059	1,691	1.072	787
Punch and press operators	13,259	.955	12,584	.963	675
Repairmen, productive, n. e. c.	5,182	1.028	4,133	1.045	1,049
Sanders and rough-stuff rubbers	4,089	1.001	2,936	1.046	1,153
Sewing-machine operators	802	.838	654	.838	148
Sheet-metal machine operators, n. e. c.	1,803	.935	1,584	.961	219
Straighteners	1,111	.978	1,061	.981	50
Testers, car, final	843	.949	583	.962	260
Testers, motor and transmission	1,191	.902	1,146	.995	45
Trim bench hands	5,500	1.028	4,365	1.044	1,135
Truckers, hand, and material handlers	17,365	.847	13,496	.858	3,869
Truckers, power (inside)	3,294	.892	3,015	.905	279
Welders and brazers, hand	4,062	1.028	3,153	1.064	909
Welders and brazers, machine	8,429	.979	7,329	.988	1,100
Tool- and die-room occupations	19,210	1.168	17,197	1.197	2,013
Foremen and leaders	1,639	1.416	1,543	1.430	96
Tool and die makers	13,920	1.194	12,518	1.222	1,402
Tool and die maker apprentices	1,809	.759	1,613	.794	196
Tool-room workers, n. e. c.	1,842	1.111	1,523	1.139	319
<b>Foundry occupations</b>					
Casting cleaners	18,018	.925	17,744	.928	274
Chippers and sandblasters	1,505	.900	1,487	.911	18
Coremakers	2,210	.895	2,174	.898	36
Inspectors	2,323	.963	2,300	.964	23
Molders	726	.891	709	.897	17
Pattern makers	1,555	.973	1,526	.976	29
Skilled and semiskilled foundry workers, n. e. c.	6,142	1.215	411	1.222	11
Unskilled foundry workers	3,135	.862	3,053	.868	82
<b>Maintenance and service occupations</b>					
Carpenters	36,453	.946	31,436	.961	5,017
Electricians	692	.966	591	.974	101
Foremen and leaders	2,801	1.027	2,426	1.046	375
Helpers and apprentices	1,953	1.142	1,673	1.152	280
Janitors	2,322	.850	2,126	.855	106
Laborers, n. e. c.	5,091	.772	4,207	.778	884
Repairmen, skilled	2,486	.816	2,172	.835	314
Repairmen, machine tools	5,525	1.055	4,916	1.067	609
Repairmen, other equipment	4,804	1.059	4,233	1.072	551
Millwrights	721	1.031	663	1.036	58
Pipe fitters	2,841	.983	2,505	.998	336
Semiskilled workers, n. e. c.	1,663	1.015	1,450	1.029	213
Service workers, n. e. c.	1,271	.936	1,051	.954	220
Skilled workers, n. e. c.	713	.839	617	.849	96
Tool grinders and cutters	4,560	.997	3,919	1.008	641
Truck drivers	1,353	1.019	1,258	1.029	95
Watchmen	1,310	.897	1,154	.910	156
	1,872	.807	1,371	.838	501
<b>Females</b>					
All departments	7,928	.720	7,500	.722	428
Processing occupations	7,346	.722	6,937	.724	409
Assemblers, motor	163	.730	163	.730	-----
Assemblers, small parts	903	.719	903	.719	-----
Assemblers and trimmers, body <sup>1</sup>	782	.711	643	.716	139
Clerical workers, factory	122	.644	109	.668	13
Inspectors, n. e. c.	208	.683	204	.687	4
Laborers, n. e. c.	222	.692	219	.694	3
Other processing occupations, n. e. c.	405	.733	364	.734	41
Paint-shop workers, n. e. c.	179	.737	172	.739	7
Punch and press operators	207	.747	179	.754	28
Sewing-machine operators	2,137	.744	2,120	.745	17
Trim bench hands	1,880	.714	1,724	.714	156
Truckers, hand, and material handlers	138	.673	137	.675	1
Foundry occupations	451	.697	439	.698	12
Skilled and semiskilled foundry workers, n. e. c.	168	.736	156	.742	12
Unskilled foundry workers	283	.673	283	.673	-----
Service workers, n. e. c.	131	.704	124	.711	7

<sup>1</sup> Workers too few to justify computation of an average.<sup>2</sup> Does not include body welders.

Interpretation of the regional differences in the average hourly earnings for the several occupational groups is subject to limitations on the basis of certain complex factors, most of which have their origin in the fundamental characteristics of the industry itself. As pointed out earlier, the large automobile manufacturers operate plants both within the East North Central States and in other areas, and the differences in wage levels between the two groups of plants are, in general, small.<sup>11</sup> Within certain limits, therefore, it may be said that the occupations which have substantial numbers of workers outside the "automobile area" might be expected to show relatively small regional differences in occupational earnings averages, principally because of the fact that the large companies employ some 90 percent of all the workers. This is true in the case of inspectors, trim bench hands, chassis and final assemblers, and paint polishers and rubbers, in which groups the regional differences in occupational averages are well within the general regional difference of 10.1 cents.

In certain other occupations this generalization does not apply; a case in point is the tool-maker group in which the regional difference is more than 27 cents. In this instance the large difference probably reflects the fact that the outlying plants of the major companies are engaged principally in assembly and other processes which do not ordinarily involve the use of tool makers and certain other highly skilled groups. Most of the independent plants, in which wage levels tend to be lower, do, however, employ tool makers, and these smaller establishments are relatively far more important outside the East North Central States than they are within the automobile area. Thus, the difference in average earnings in this case is probably a result of the management structure of the industry to a much greater extent than it is a reflection of any marked regional differences in wage levels. Similar reasoning may be applied to certain other occupations, such, for example, as punch and press operators.

This general situation may be illustrated further by reference to the group of car loaders whose average hourly earnings are identical for the two areas shown. It is likely that few, if any, of the smaller independent plants have employees engaged exclusively in such work and so designated on pay rolls. No regional difference in earnings appears in this case, presumably because most, if not all, of the car loaders included are employed in the plants of the large companies. One additional factor is probably involved in these apparent regional differences and may be illustrated by the fact that average earnings for job setters in the East North Central States are 5 cents below those outside this central automobile area. Job setters in the cen-

<sup>11</sup> This comment relates, of course, only to similar establishments; most of the outlying plants of the large companies are for assembly and distribution, and it is obviously illogical to compare earnings in these plants with those in the central manufacturing plants in which the proportion of highly skilled workers and, consequently, plant average earnings are higher.

tral plants of the large companies are engaged principally in duties connected with mass-production methods, and their work may in some cases tend to be more standardized than would normally be true in a small plant subject to frequent changes of set-up. Further, it is likely that the job setter in a small plant will be expected to assume additional duties as foreman or repairman, and his rate of pay will, in consequence, tend to be higher. Since this is an occupation which would not be common in outlying plants of the large manufacturers, the explanation may well be based on this combination of circumstances rather than on any actual regional differences in wage levels for a standardized job.

*Female workers.*—The majority of the 7,928 female workers were employed in the larger plants, and their average hourly earnings were 72.0 cents, or 24.7 cents below those for males. The earnings of half the women employed were within 4 cents of the general average for female workers. Small-parts assemblers, body assemblers and trimmers, sewing-machine operators, trim bench hands, and core-room workers in foundries accounted for the great majority of the female employees. The number of women in plants outside the East North Central States is insufficient to provide an adequate basis for generalization.

#### WEEKLY HOURS

*Full-time weekly hours.*—Practically four-fifths (133) of the 167 vehicle and body plants studied were operating on an official 40-hour week. Most of the remaining plants reported a standard week of 42 hours (the maximum normal week established at the time of the survey under the Fair Labor Standards Act). Only four plants showed a general workweek of less than 40 hours, and an equal number were scheduling a week of more than 42 hours. The 40-hour week was found more frequently in the "automobile States" (the East North Central region), where almost 90 percent of the plants were on this schedule. This situation also results from the fact that most of the establishments were operated by a few large companies. More than three-fourths of the plants which scheduled more than 40 hours of work per week were outside the automobile area, and none of the four establishments reporting more than 42 hours were in the East North Central region.

*Actual weekly hours.*—The 322,941 automobile-plant employees studied worked an average of 36.8 hours per week in the pay-roll period for which the data were collected (table 11). Variations in the averages for the several regions are not large except in the case of the West North Central States where the low average reflects a slack period in several large body and assembly plants. It may be noted that the average weekly hours in automobile plants were slightly

more than an hour below the figure for the parts plants studied. This difference may be in part a result of the fact that the industry was approaching the end of a model year, and any slight effect of the seasonal dip would naturally be more apparent in automobile plants than in parts plants.

#### AVERAGE WEEKLY EARNINGS

The management structure and regional distribution of the automobile division of the industry are reflected in the data on weekly earnings as in the case of the other wage data. The average of \$35.91 for the 271,151 workers in the East North Central States and the Michigan rate of \$36.09 are slightly higher than the figure (\$35.42) for the country as a whole. As in the case of weekly hours, the average of weekly earnings in the West North Central States is affected by the short workweeks in several large plants. The variations in average weekly earnings between regions would, of course, be greater were it not for the fact that the data from decentralized plants of the large companies carry sufficient weight virtually to eliminate the influence of the relatively lower earnings rates obtaining in the independent plants.

TABLE 11.—*Average Hourly Earnings, Weekly Hours, and Weekly Earnings of Workers in Automobile Division, by Geographic Division, May-June 1940*

Geographic division	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Average weekly hours	Average weekly earnings
All geographic divisions.....	322,941	\$0.961	36.8	\$35.42
New England and Middle Atlantic.....				
East North Central.....	29,712	.877	38.9	34.12
Michigan.....	271,151	.977	36.8	35.91
Ohio.....	229,845	.985	36.6	36.09
Indiana.....	15,185	.920	38.4	35.32
Illinois and Wisconsin.....	15,390	.950	36.6	34.73
West North Central.....	10,722	.923	37.6	34.68
Other divisions.....	8,921	.908	31.5	28.64
	13,157	.876	37.2	32.62

## PROGRAM OF THE INTERNATIONAL LABOR ORGANIZATION

By CARTER GOODRICH<sup>1</sup>

THE 1941 Conference of the International Labor Organization, held at New York and Washington, served to focus opinion on the social issues of the war and on preparation for the social and economic problems of reconstruction. Its importance and the program of future action it laid down for the I. L. O. warrant a more extensive report than the summary article on the Conference in the December 1941 issue of the *Monthly Labor Review*.<sup>2</sup>

As the earlier article pointed out, this was the second full Conference of the I. L. O. to be held in the United States. When President Roosevelt met the delegates in the closing session at the White House, he reminded them that, as Assistant Secretary of the Navy, he had helped make the preparations for the first I. L. O. Conference in Washington in 1919. He recalled to them, also, how wild a dream it had then seemed that governments should get together to raise the standards of living on an international plane. "Wilder still," he said, "was the idea that the people who were directly affected—the workers and the employers of the various countries—should have a hand with government in determining these labor standards."

The Secretary of Labor, who was elected President of the Conference, drew a significant contrast between the two occasions: "As a citizen of the United States, I see one great difference between this conference in 1941 and that held first in 1919. At both Conferences, the nations of the world gathered together, dedicated in their purpose to build a better world. In 1919 the United States was not there. Today we stand shoulder to shoulder with the free nations of the world."

The importance of the 1941 Conference was attested by the representativeness and distinction of the delegations which attended. In spite of the difficulties and dangers of travel, and in spite of the world's preoccupation with the day-to-day events of the war, no less than 35 nations were officially represented.<sup>3</sup> Twenty-two of the delegations included workers' and employers' delegates. Among those participating in the Conference were 17 members of cabinets and ministries, including C. R. Attlee, member of the British War Cabinet, the foreign ministers of Belgium and Czechoslovakia, and nine

<sup>1</sup> Mr. Goodrich is United States Labor Commissioner at Geneva, and chairman of the Governing Body of the International Labor Office.

<sup>2</sup> The final record of the Conference was published by the International Labor Office in January 1942. The January issue of the *International Labor Review* contained an article on the Conference entitled, "The Social Objective in Wartime and World Reconstruction."

<sup>3</sup> Thirty-three States, members of the Organization, sent delegates; another member, Thailand, was represented by an observer. Costa Rica, which is not a member, also sent an observer.

ministers of labor or social welfare. Other prominent government delegates were Paul van Zeeland, former Prime Minister of Belgium, and Carl J. Hambro, President of the Norwegian Storting.

The employers' group included the director of the British Employers' Confederation, the president of the Associated Chambers of Manufacturers of Australia, the president of the New Zealand Employers' Federation, and a past president of the Canadian Manufacturers' Association, as well as a past president and the present president of the United States Chamber of Commerce. The workers' group included the secretary general of the International Federation of Trade-Unions; the presidents of the Australasian Council of Trade-Unions, the Canadian Trades and Labor Congress, and the Chinese Association of Labor; the secretaries of the Confederations of Labor of the Argentine and of Chile, and of the South African Trades Council; and three members of the general council of the Trades Union Congress, as well as officials of unions affiliated with the American Federation of Labor and with the Congress of Industrial Organizations.<sup>4</sup>

### *Democratic Solidarity*

The Conference was called "in the belief that social justice and social security and the basic elements of economic democracy are not luxuries to be thought of only when the stern business of fighting is settled, but that they are, instead, the essence of the conflict and the very stuff for which free men fight." The meeting gave a remarkable demonstration of democratic solidarity that foreshadowed the prompt rallying of nations which a month later was to follow the Japanese attack upon the United States.

The speech of Robert J. Watt, as United States workers' delegate, which opened the discussion on the Acting Director's report, struck

<sup>4</sup> The United States delegation was as follows:

*Government delegates:* Frances Perkins, Secretary of Labor; Adolf A. Berle, Jr., Assistant Secretary of State. Substitute delegates: Carter Goodrich, United States Labor Commissioner at Geneva and chairman of the Governing Body of the International Labor Office; Frieda S. Miller, Industrial Commissioner, New York State Department of Labor. Advisers: Daniel W. Tracy, First Assistant Secretary of Labor; Clara M. Beyer, Assistant Director, Division of Labor Standards, Department of Labor; A. Ford Hinrichs, Acting Commissioner, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Department of Labor; Thomas C. O'Brien, regional counsel, Brotherhood of Railroad Trainmen; Theodore C. Achilles, foreign service officer, Department of State.

*Employers' delegate:* Henry I. Harriman, chairman of the board, New England Power Association, and member of the Governing Body of the International Labor Office. Advisers: Clarence G. McDavitt, retired vice president of New England Telephone & Telegraph Co.; Albert W. Hawkes, president, Chamber of Commerce of the United States. Substitute advisers: Edward R. Stettinius, Jr., former chairman of United States Steel Corporation, New York; Carl Adams, president, Air Reduction Corporation, New York; Arthur Paul, Dexdale Hosiery Mills, Lansdale, Pa.

*Workers' delegate:* Robert J. Watt, American Federation of Labor, member of the Governing Body of the International Labor Office. Advisers: George Meany, secretary-treasurer, American Federation of Labor; Frank Grillo, secretary-treasurer, United Rubber Workers of America. Substitute advisers: George Harrison, president, Brotherhood of Railroad Clerks; Dorothy J. Bellanca, member, general executive board, Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America. Secretary of delegation: John S. Gambs, associate professor of public welfare administration, Louisiana State University.

the keynote of vigorous democratic opposition to the Nazi philosophy. In the same morning, Henry I. Harriman, United States employers' delegate, asked for a "definite affirmative statement that it is the duty of all liberty-loving people and the organizations which they represent, such as the I. L. O., to take an affirmative part in winning the war." Particularly striking were the similar expressions made by the government, employer, and worker representatives from a number of the South American nations and the degree of sympathy which developed between them and the representatives of the free peoples that were already at war. The viewpoint of the latter was summed up in Mr. Attlee's statement that "all planning for a world of peace and social justice is just lost labor unless Hitlerism is destroyed." The delegates from the countries that had suffered invasion were received with particular warmth, and one of the most significant events which occurred during the meeting—though not an act of the Conference itself—was the declaration of solidarity adopted by the Government, employer, and worker delegates of Czechoslovakia, Poland, Greece, and Yugoslavia, which was read from the platform of the Conference.

This spirit was reflected in almost every speech made in the Conference and found embodiment in its formal decisions. The Conference adopted without dissenting voice a resolution submitted by the United States delegation, which contained as the first sentence in its preamble the statement: "The victory of the free peoples in the war against totalitarian aggression is an indispensable condition of the attainment of the ideals of the International Labor Organization."

Another resolution proposed by the Government delegates of Peru and China endorsed the social and economic principles of the Atlantic Charter, asked "that the fullest use be made of the machinery and experience of the International Labor Organization in giving effect to these principles," and pledged "the full cooperation of the International Labor Organization in their implementation." Perhaps even more striking was the fact that all the 22 workers' delegates joined in presenting a resolution, adopted by the Conference with one abstention, which urged "all free peoples to contribute to the uttermost limit of their power for the victory of China, Great Britain, Russia, and their Allies by supplying all the arms which their industry can produce."

#### *Government-Employer-Worker Collaboration*

A principal topic of discussion was that of methods of collaboration among governments, workers' organizations, and employers' organizations. On this the Office had prepared a series of reports of which the most notable was that on "Wartime Developments in Gover-

ment-Employer-Worker Collaboration." The Conference considered this question in a committee of the whole house. In its discussions, the delegates exchanged experiences in organizing such cooperation and indicated their feeling of its importance.

One of the most effective statements was that made by Sir John Forbes Watson, British employers' delegate, who cited two wartime incidents in which he and the general secretary of the British Trades Union Congress were principals:

When I last spoke from this platform a few days ago I told you how Sir Walter Citrine and I—he for the workers and I for the employers—on a summer's afternoon, when our men were standing on Dunkirk Beach, put everything aside, and said, "Strikes and lock-outs shall be illegal while this war lasts and arbitration shall be compulsory." I told you then and I tell you again, we did not do that lightheartedly. But I will tell you something else. Not so long ago, Sir Walter Citrine and I jointly went up to see our Minister of Labor, Mr. Bevin, with a joint proposal. Mr. Bevin is quick to recognize a new situation, and as we went into the room and he shook hands with us, he said, smilingly, "I hope this isn't a conspiracy." Sir Walter Citrine answered. He said, "No, Minister, it is not a conspiracy; it is just an experiment in self-government." You will be interested to know that we got 90 percent of what we had jointly asked for.

The British workers' delegate, Joseph Hallsworth, took a similar attitude and stressed the importance of applying similar methods to the problems of reconstruction.

Some of that fine spirit in which the various sections of the community had laid aside their particular interests and had come together in defense of their common interest, when confronted by the enemies of freedom, would surely remain when the war was over.

Keen interest in the problem of collaboration was expressed by delegates from every continent. Certain of the Latin American and European delegates, indeed, were disappointed because time did not permit the working out of a fully detailed program of methods of collaboration; and it was the Mexican Minister of Labor, García Téllez, who made one of the most comprehensive statements of the importance of the question:

We must protect the right of the free association of workers and employers for participation in economic, industrial, political, and social deliberations, intended to coordinate programs of a national, continental or international character. We must consider it fundamental to have them genuinely represented in the study and execution of any program of national emergency. In the discussion of international agreements, commercial treaties and especially in drawing up the future peace treaties, the participation of occupational groups representing the living forces of each country will be indispensable.

On the motion of Frieda S. Miller, substitute delegate for the United States Government, the committee on collaboration appointed a tripartite subcommittee to draft a set of declarations which were adopted by the Conference. These statements took note of the fact that methods of cooperation "vary with place, social pattern, prior

experience, temperament, and custom," as the Conference discussions had indicated, but declared that real collaboration was possible "only within the framework of democratic political institutions which guarantee the freedom of association of workers and employers." In these resolutions the Conference recognized "the universal and permanent importance for all nations of effective collaboration between the public authorities and workers' organizations and employers' organizations," and underlined the special importance of such cooperation—

(a) during the present war, because the success of the military operations largely depends on the result of the battle of production which will be won by the democracies only by the complete collaboration between the workers and the employers in the work of national defense;

(b) after victory, for the transition from war economy to peace economy and for the economic and social reconstruction of the world, which will be of interest to all countries, belligerent and neutral, and which will call for a gigantic and coordinated effort on the part of the public authorities, workers, and employers.

On motion of a group of workers' representatives, which included Robert Watt, Frank Grillo of the United Rubber Workers, and Dorothy Bellanca of the Amalgamated Clothing Workers, the Conference also adopted a resolution recommending that—

In agencies set up by public authority which include among their functions the planning and application of public policies which directly or indirectly affect the interest of workers and employers, the policy-making and administrative agencies should include representative and responsible spokesmen of workers, and employers acting jointly with their governments.

### *"The American Resolution"*

The central decision of the Conference was the adoption of a comprehensive resolution on the function of the I. L. O. in post-war reconstruction, the full text of which appears on pages 1449 and 1450 of the December Review. This was frequently referred to by delegates as "The American Resolution." In fact, however, it represented much more than the proposal of a single delegation, and this was made clear by the United States Government representative who moved its adoption:

This resolution began as the proposal of the Government, employer, and worker delegates of the United States of America. It has become much more. It has grown by accretion. Its way has been cleared by the withdrawal of certain other resolutions. \* \* \* The declaration has been strengthened, not weakened, as it has gone through the committee process.

On the motion of the workers' group, the resolutions committee added a request for representation at any peace or reconstruction conference at the end of the war. In this statement I should construe the word "represented" not in the strict diplomatic sense and usage, and not as prejudging the particular form of possible participation, but as expressing our conviction that the voice of the International

Labor Organization should be heard in the most effective way that it is possible to find in the great decisions that will follow the war.

What this resolution attempts to do is to set down certain points on which the will of this Conference has seemed to grow clearer and more definite with each day's discussions.

The resolution declared that immediate action must be ready at the close of the war "for the feeding of peoples in need, for the reconstruction of the devastated countries, for the provision and transportation of raw materials and capital equipment necessary for the restoration of economic activity, for the reopening of trade outlets, for the resettlement of workers and their families under circumstances in which they can work in freedom and security and hope, for the changing over of industry to the needs of peace, for the maintenance of employment, and for the raising of standards of living throughout the world."

This was described by Miss Perkins as "the kind of objective and the kind of program which unite the American people. \* \* \* It is a point of view which farmers and housewives, and business men, and professional people, as well as workers and employers, will find possible to accept and adopt as their own."

After noting that the accomplishment of these purposes will require international collaboration and will set administrative tasks of great difficulty, the resolution declared that the I. L. O. is "particularly fitted to take part in this work in such a way as to minimize misunderstanding and unrest" because it "possesses the confidence of the free peoples and includes in its structure the representatives of workers and employers." For these reasons the resolution asked the Governing Body to call the attention of the member governments to the desirability of "associating" the I. L. O. "with the planning and application of measures of reconstruction" and with the work of "any peace or reconstruction conference following the war." It recommended that those governments which had not already done so, should create their own agencies for the study of post-war social and economic needs. It asked the Governing Body to form from its own membership a small tripartite committee to study and prepare post-war measures and recommended that this committee should enlist the assistance of technically qualified experts and cooperate with governmental, intergovernmental, and private agencies engaged in similar studies. It asked that the work of the International Labor Office and the program of subsequent conferences should be adapted to serve these purposes "so that the International Labor Organization shall be in a position to give authoritative expression to the social objectives confided to it, in the rebuilding of a peaceful world."

### Textile and Maritime Resolutions

In addition to this general resolution, the Conference adopted other reconstruction proposals relating to two specific industries of markedly international character with which the I. L. O. has been particularly concerned.

The first of these was textiles. On the proposal of John G. Winant and under his chairmanship, the I. L. O. held a World Textile Conference in Washington in the spring of 1937. This represented the first occasion on which employers and workers of the textile industry, as well as government representatives, had come together on an international basis. For this meeting was prepared the first survey of the industry as a world problem. At the time the war broke out, steps were in process to create a permanent international committee on which the various branches of the textile industries of the different countries could be represented. In his report to the Conference, the Acting Director, E. J. Phelan, suggested that such a committee might be able to formulate and execute plans "for reconstruction of the industry after the war."<sup>5</sup>

On the motion of the British workers' delegate, the Conference instructed the Office to prepare definite plans, to be "put into effect with a minimum of delay after the termination of hostilities, for the establishment under the aegis of the International Labor Organization of a World Textile Office, based on the tripartite principle, to be responsible for the international organization of economic and social measures to secure prosperity and social justice in the textile industry."

Of all the international standards adopted by the International Labor Organization, those which comprise "The Seamen's Code" represent the most comprehensive set of regulations and those of most direct interest to the United States. Much of the success in this field has been due to the work of the Joint Maritime Commission, composed of employers and workers from the major maritime nations. At the New York meeting the seamen of the allied nations were strongly represented, and the Conference adopted with considerable enthusiasm a resolution concerning the maritime industry. This referred to the sacrifices and devotion to duty of seafarers during the war and declared that "the international character of shipping will become even more pronounced after the war than before." It suggested the possibility of including government representatives in the Joint Maritime Commission and instructed the International Labor Office "to consult all interested organizations, institutions, and individuals in order that at the end of the war plans will be available for the immediate regulation of economic and social conditions in the mercantile marine."

<sup>5</sup> Phelan, E. J.: The I. L. O. and Reconstruction, Montreal, 1941, p. 107. The survey referred to, which was prepared by Lewis L. Lorwin, is The World Textile Industry: Economic and Social Problems (Report to the Tripartite Technical Conference, Washington, April 1937).

*The First Steps*

The reconstruction resolution was adopted by the Conference on November 4. The next afternoon the Governing Body met to take the first steps toward the carrying out of its purposes. The Conference had asked the Governing Body to transmit the resolution to the governments "forthwith." This was done, with the significant addition that the program adopted would require the provision of a special supplementary budget.<sup>6</sup>

The three regular United States members of the Governing Body, Carter Goodrich, who is its chairman, Henry I. Harriman, and Robert Watt, took part in this session. In addition, Isador Lubin acted as substitute for Mr. Goodrich and Clarence G. McDavitt for Mr. Harriman.

To provide for effective functioning through the war period, the Governing Body, at the same meeting, chose from its own membership an emergency committee to act for it between regular sessions. A similar committee, chosen in February 1939, had done valuable work in preparing the I. L. O. plans in advance of the war emergency, and held two meetings in Geneva after the war broke out. The events of the war, however, had made it extremely difficult for this group to meet and impossible for several of its members to continue their functions. A new committee was therefore chosen in such a way as to make possible the holding of meetings either in London or in the Americas.

The composition of the committee, consisting of six governments, three employers, and three workers, is as follows:

<i>Government Members</i>		
<i>Members</i>		<i>Substitutes</i>
United States of America	Brazil <sup>7</sup>	
Canada	Chile <sup>7</sup>	
Great Britain	China	
India	Norway	
Mexico or Brazil or Chile <sup>7</sup>	Poland	
Netherlands <sup>7</sup>	Yugoslavia	

<sup>6</sup> At a previous meeting, held during the Conference, this ninetieth session of the Governing Body had adopted the ordinary budget for 1942 of 4,224,000 Swiss francs. It had also confirmed Mr. Phelan in the position of Acting Director, which he had assumed on February 15, 1941, on the resignation of Mr. Winant. In doing so, the Governing Body expressed "its high appreciation of the services rendered by Mr. Phelan and its full confidence in his capacity" and entrusted him "with all the powers and responsibilities of the Director." Mr. Phelan was one of those who drafted the original constitution of the I. L. O. in 1919 and has served in the Office since its inception.

<sup>7</sup> It was agreed that the three Latin-American countries should serve in rotation in the order given. There was a similar, though less formal, arrangement for rotation between Netherlands and the other governments-in-exile in London.

*Employers' Members*

<i>Members</i>	<i>Substitutes</i>
Sir John Forbes Watson, Great Britain	Mr. Gemmill, South Africa
Mr. Harriman, U. S. A.	Mr. Erulkar, India
Mr. Oersted, Denmark	Mr. Lamuraglia, Argentine
	Mr. Ling, China

*Workers' Members*

<i>Members</i>	<i>Substitutes</i>
Mr. Hallsworth, Great Britain	Mr. Domenech, Argentine
Mr. Rens, Belgium	Mr. Moore, Canada
Mr. Watt, U. S. A.	Mr. Schevenels, Belgium

To this group the Governing Body entrusted its direct responsibility for the planning of the I. L. O. reconstruction measures and for the enlisting of expert assistance and cooperation with other governmental, intergovernmental, and private agencies. It was agreed that the first meeting of this committee should be held in London, and that the first item on its agenda should be the work of the reconstruction resolution.

At the present time the Acting Director and his staff are engaged in the preliminary research and consultations necessary for the planning of the reconstruction work. They will present definite proposals to be acted upon at the London meeting, which is planned for the early spring of 1942.

*The Work Ahead*

It is therefore too early to ask for the I. L. O.'s detailed plans for the reconstruction period. The present is the period of preliminary planning. It is the stage at which the Office could be most helped by suggestions from interested groups and individuals in the United States and other countries.

Certain of the main lines are foreshadowed, however, by the past work of the Organization and by the discussions in the Conference. Clearly the I. L. O. will start from where it is. It has been concerned, for example, with the efficient organization of the labor market. One of the most useful of its wartime publications is the volume, "Labor Supply and National Defense," which was prepared at the suggestion of an informal joint conference of employers, workers, and government officials of Canada and the United States. A more detailed study on the transfer of labor as a wartime problem is now being prepared. The reconstruction studies, which will be largely concerned with the reverse of the wartime movement, will make use of the same methods of analysis and the same knowledge of employment exchange machinery in facing the urgent problems of transfer and retraining and guidance that will be presented in the shift from war to peacetime production.

The I. L. O. will be in a similar position to advise on the adaptation of social-insurance systems to cushion the shocks of this transition. The experts of the I. L. O. staff, since their move to Montreal, have rendered technical assistance on social-insurance problems to a number of the nations of North and South America, and have taken a large part in the formation of the Inter-American Committee to Forward Social Security. More recently they have been invited to advise the British Government on plans for a post-war revision of the systems of social insurance and social assistance. Again, the I. L. O. has by no means forgotten its permanent function of preparing international labor standards for legislative adoption. An examination of what has been accomplished, and of the gaps which remain to be filled when the work can be taken up again, has been made easier by the publication, in 1941, of a volume arranging the substance of the conventions and recommendations adopted by I. L. O. Conferences under the orderly headings of an International Labor Code. At the same time, its studies of workers' nutrition and of workers' housing provide part of the basis for setting standards in a wider field.

For specific measures of reconstruction, the I. L. O. will be able to make use of or adapt certain specialized organs created before the war. One of these is the International Public Works Committee which was organized to promote the coordination of public works policies of the various nations. At its first meeting in the summer of 1938 it had drawn up "a uniform plan" for the reporting of current measures. A number of speakers in the Conference argued that public works would necessarily play a larger part at the close of the war, and the suggestion was made that this committee might be reorganized to play a bolder role in organized international cooperation in the investment field.

The I. L. O. also has a Permanent Committee on Migration for Settlement which consists of representatives of both emigration and immigration countries and also of countries that might take part in the international financing of projects of settlement.<sup>8</sup> A number of delegates, and notably Mr. van Zeeland of Belgium and Mr. van den Tempel of the Netherlands, pointed out that "the uprooting of populations" during the war has made more acute than ever the problems with which this committee was organized to deal, and argued that it should have a constructive part to play in a planned resumption of migratory movements after the war. The willingness of certain of the Latin American States to cooperate in its work was indicated by the Chilean Minister of Labor, Pradenas Muñoz, who declared that the South American nations, understanding "their historical mission," must "open the doors to humanity and thus assist their own

<sup>8</sup> The reconstruction resolution refers to the use of these two committees as well as of the Permanent Agricultural Committee and the Joint Maritime Commission.

peoples." "There must not," he said, "be any land without men and certainly no men without land."

The most significant new emphasis in the Conference discussions was on the view that the I. L. O. should not limit itself to labor questions narrowly defined but that it must face the central problems of economic organization. The Czechoslovak Minister of Reconstruction, Mr. Nečas, declared that "the International Labor Organization must become not only a world parliament of social policy but also a world parliament of economic policy."

Speaker after speaker declared that social and economic questions "are bound together unbreakably," that the central concern of economic policy is the daily life of working folk, and that the solution of the problems of labor requires a sounder economic organization. The workers' delegate who declared most vigorously that the masses would refuse "once the war is over \* \* \* to return to the miseries of unemployment and social insecurity," drew from this an argument for the extension of the I. L. O.'s economic activities; and there was general recognition that permanent increases in the standard of living rested on the more effective utilization of the world's resources.

It is no accident that the statement of purposes in the reconstruction resolution included "the reopening of trade outlets" as well as "the raising of standards of living throughout the world." The intimate and essential connection between the two points was pointed out by many speakers. In her opening address, Miss Perkins stated it in concrete terms:

We know that there is not enough cotton produced in the world for each human being to have the equivalent of three shirts and a couple of pairs of overalls each year. We know what we seem for a time to have forgotten, that there is not a sufficient amount of food produced today to nourish the population on decent world standards which nutritional experts would recognize as a minimum. \* \* \* Our problem in the post-war period will not be one of too-abundant resources. Our problem will be that of finding some way to stretch existing resources and to develop new ones to produce a more abundant life for the people who have suffered the privations of war from Chungking to London. \* \* \* It is incumbent upon us, therefore, to plan in the post-war world, to reduce those barriers to trade which have limited the economic life and comfort of the people of the world. The world is rich, but every nation that must depend upon its own resources alone is poor.

On this there was wide agreement. A Czech delegate who had lived for some time under the Protectorate, told how autarchy blocks honest enterprise, impoverishes the workers, and nullifies social reform. From the other end of the world, a member of the New Zealand Labor Government, Mr. Langstone, described "the expansion of trade" as "the key to world peace and higher standards of living."

Delegates from China and India called attention to the increases in world trade that would follow from the raising of the purchasing

power of their masses. Speakers from Latin American countries stressed the vital importance to them of trade relationships now and in the future. The Argentine workers' delegate, Mr. Domenech, declaring that "the workers have always proclaimed the principle of economic liberty," welcomed the recent trade agreement between the United States and Argentina. Representatives of several Latin American countries called attention in temperate but forceful speeches to the difficulties caused for their people by the current restrictions on exports imposed by the United States. On the motion of the Chilean delegation, the Conference adopted a resolution recognizing that "restrictions imposed upon export trade between certain American countries unquestionably represent a danger for industry and trade, which run the risk of being paralyzed with the consequence of causing inevitable unemployment among large numbers of workers, creating thereby a serious internal situation in the countries concerned."

Representatives of the occupied countries urged the importance of plans for immediate shipment at the close of the war of food and raw materials to the regions in which economic activity will be at a standstill because of physical devastation, lack of supplies, and very likely the complete break-down of political and economic organization. "Not only the will but also the plans and the machinery," said a Norwegian worker, must be "ready when the war comes to an end." "Do not lose time," warned a Czech employer. "Nobody knows when this war will end. \* \* \* An action like this must be prepared in time." The discussion did not stop with immediate relief but went on to questions of long-run development. The thinking of the Conference linked together those European regions whose economic equipment is being destroyed by the war with those parts of the world whose resources have always been underdeveloped as areas whose employment opportunities must be expanded by the provision of the necessary capital. On this point Doctor Allende, the Chilean Minister of Public Health, made the suggestion of a policy of social loans, which he applied to Latin America but which might also prove suggestive for European reconstruction:

We should adopt a new conception of economic relations. The smaller countries have hitherto obtained loans of money for the development of particular industries and for purposes of national defense. We think that such loans should be made for raising the standard of living of the masses and for public health.

The Conference approached these and other questions with the conviction, similar to that expressed in the Atlantic Charter, of the fundamental necessity of "organized international cooperation." To this it added two other basic beliefs: first, that trade-unions and employers' associations will have large contributions to make in the work of reconstruction as well as in winning the war; and second, that the I. L. O. itself, as the international agency through which

workers and employers have learned to work, must prepare itself for wider responsibilities than in the past. It must continue to serve by the determination of labor standards and by technical assistance on specific labor policies. It must act as spokesman for the social objectives which, as President Roosevelt told the delegates, are "the goal beyond victory." It must exert its influence in the support of constructive economic policies which will make possible the attainment of these objectives. Finally, it must be ready, after victory and in association with other agencies, national and international, to bring the experience and understanding developed in an organization including industry and labor in many lands to bear in the application of the urgent measures of restoration and reconstruction.

This is the work ahead. This is the field staked out by the Conference and the challenge to future performance. In closing the final session, the President of the United States reaffirmed both the claim and the challenge:

In the planning of such international action, the I. L. O. with its representation of labor and management, its technical knowledge and experience, will be an invaluable instrument for peace. Your organization will have an essential part to play in building up a stable international system of social justice for all peoples everywhere. As part of you, the people of the United States are determined to respond fully to the opportunity and challenge of this historic responsibility.

## EFFECTS OF A MINIMUM WAGE IN THE COTTON-GARMENT INDUSTRY, 1939-41<sup>1</sup>

### *Summary*

FEW displacements resulted from the introduction of the 30-cent and 32.5-cent minimum rates in the cotton-garment industry in 1939 and 1940, and most of the workers separated experienced little hardship in accomplishing an occupational readjustment. The Bureau of Labor Statistics' study on which this conclusion is based covered 28 establishments in the industry, which in March 1939 employed 4,665 workers. Shortly before the effective date of the 30-cent-minimum, 2,274 of these employees—most of them young woman piece workers—earned less than 30 cents an hour.

The economic position of the industry was generally favorable following the establishment of the minimum rates, and contributed to the successful adjustment of employers and workers alike. Most manufacturers, however, made little or no change in methods, organization, or policies. Only 13 of the 28 covered in the study raised piece rates, although piece workers unable to attain the minimum by means of their output were generally given "make-up." In March 1941 the subminimum workers who had remained on the pay rolls of the respective plants averaged 34 cents an hour.

Fully 702 of the subminimum workers, or 30.9 percent of the number employed in March 1939, were not on the pay roll 2 years later. The proportion of separations among the subminimum workers, however, was little higher than that for workers (22.8 percent) who had earned the minimum or more. Reports from workers interviewed by the Bureau's representatives, moreover, indicate that only about one-sixth of the subminimum workers who were separated had been discharged. An equal proportion had quit to take another job, and about 1 out of every 7 had been forced to stop work on account of ill health. Substantial numbers had resigned to get married or because of pregnancy.

Many of the subminimum workers who were separated from the pay roll dropped out of the labor market, and in July 1941 fewer than half (47.0 percent) were employed or looking for a job. Most of those who sought work experienced little unemployment and only 1 family out of 20 received public assistance at any time during the 2-year period studied. On July 1, 1941, a large proportion (43.7 percent) of the separated workers who had obtained other jobs were working

<sup>1</sup> By Robert J. Myers and Odis C. Clark of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, Division of Wage and Hour Statistics. This study was made at the request of the Wage and Hour Division of the U. S. Department of Labor. Additional material may be found in Serial No. R. 1415.

as apparel operatives. On the average, the reemployed workers earned 37 cents an hour.

Subminimum workers who had been discharged fared less well than those who had resigned or quit. Of the discharged workers who remained in the labor market, almost one-fourth had failed to obtain other jobs, after a year or more of unemployment. On July 1, 1941, however, discharged workers who had found other work were earning an average of 36 cents an hour.

### *Background of the Study*

The effect of minimum-wage regulation on workers earning less than the minimum has been the subject of much heated discussion. By one view, the imposition of a minimum wage merely restores to the worker, at the expense of parasitic management, an additional part of the just reward for his labor. By another view, the establishment of an effective minimum wage necessarily results in the unemployment of large numbers of inefficient and low-paid workers, with a consequent decline in the national income. Between these extremes lie a score or more of theories and opinions, each hedged about by its particular set of assumptions and supported by a more-or-less conscious social philosophy.

The present study, which describes the impact of the 30-cent minimum on one low-wage industry, makes no attempt to harmonize these divergent beliefs. Most persons interested in wage regulation will agree, however, that the effect of a minimum wage will be greatly influenced by such practical considerations as the height of the minimum set, the extent of free competition in the industries affected, the nature of the demand for the various products, the technological position of the industries, the condition of the general labor market, and so forth. Empirical studies, therefore, are of considerable importance in revealing what circumstances are favorable to the successful application of a minimum wage.

The Bureau's study of the reaction to the minimum wage in the cotton garment industry was directed primarily to four important questions: (1) What action was taken by low-wage firms to offset the influence of the minimum wage; (2) what was the experience of subminimum workers retained in the industry; (3) to what extent and for what reasons were the subminimum workers separated from the industry after the effective date of the minimum wage; and (4) what was the experience of the separated workers in making occupational readjustment.

### *Characteristics of the Industry*

The various branches of the cotton-garment industry are, as a group, of considerable importance. Establishments engaged in the

production of shirts and nightwear, work shirts, overalls, cotton pants, washable service apparel, and related minor products<sup>2</sup> numbered approximately 1,800 in 1939, employed almost 170,000 workers, and turned out a product valued at roughly \$500,000,000.

The industry is found largely east of the Mississippi River, although a few plants operate as far west as California. Numerous plants are scattered throughout the South. The leading States, in terms of number of workers, are Pennsylvania, New York, Missouri, Indiana, and Tennessee. A substantial proportion of the product is manufactured in small towns; in 1939 establishments employing about two-fifths of the workers were in places of less than 25,000 population.

Standardization and the division of labor are relatively advanced in the industry, and permit manufacture on a rather large scale. A number of plants employ 500 workers or more and a substantial majority of the workers are employed in plants of 100 or more. Multi-unit companies operating plants in several different towns or cities are common. Competition in selling exists on a national scale and is exceptionally keen.

Labor is important in the industry, the cost of wages in the various branches averaging about one-fourth of the total value of the product. A large majority of the wage earners are women. Skill requirements in the industry are, for the most part, not high, most occupations being classed as semiskilled. Much of the work involves the operation of sewing machines. Earnings are typically based on piece rates. In 1939, when the 30-cent minimum became effective, many plants in the industry operated under union agreements; this is still the case today. These agreements were negotiated with the Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America (C. I. O.) or with the United Garment Workers of America (A. F. of L.).

In view of its economic characteristics, this industry is one in which the imposition of a minimum wage might be expected to result in the prompt displacement of large numbers of subminimum workers. As a result of high labor cost in the industry and the pressure of competition, management is undoubtedly keenly sensitive to changes in wage rates and has a strong incentive to eliminate workers who they feel are not worth the minimum.<sup>3</sup> Moreover, because of the prevalence of piece payment, the less-efficient workers are easy to distinguish.

<sup>2</sup> The manufacture of women's cotton dresses, sometimes considered part of the cotton-garment industry, has been excluded from the present study and from the Bureau's recent studies of wages and hours of work.

<sup>3</sup> Little is known about the elasticity of the demand for the product, but it does not appear likely that price changes in this industry would affect the amount sold to as great an extent as in other of the apparel industries.

Aside from the gradual introduction of the line system of production there have been no important developments in technology in the industry in recent years.

On the other hand, it may be unrealistic to assume a close relationship between wage rates and marginal productivity in this industry. As has been pointed out, a large proportion of the labor force is composed of women who are typically poor bargainers in matters of wages. Moreover, a substantial proportion of the workers—particularly the low-wage workers—are in small towns, where labor is relatively immobile. Under circumstances such as these there may be large groups of low-paid workers who receive less than their marginal product, and whose wages can be raised appreciably without making it uneconomical to continue to employ them.

#### WAGE STRUCTURE OF THE INDUSTRY

The manufacture of cotton garments has long been known as a low-wage industry. Even in prosperous 1937 hourly earnings in important branches of the industry averaged around 36 cents. Following a drop in 1938, average earnings rose to 35.8 cents by March 1939 and to 41.8 cents by March 1941.<sup>4</sup> The average for all manufacturing industries in the latter month was 69.7 cents.

Minimum-wage regulation has been largely responsible for the modest increase in earnings in recent years. The 25-cent minimum, compulsory under the Fair Labor Standards Act, became effective in October 1938 and the 30-cent minimum went into effect a year later. In July 1940 a 32.5-cent minimum wage was established, by order of the Administrator.<sup>5</sup> Meantime, under the provisions of the Walsh-Healey Public Contracts Act, employees engaged in the production of goods for Federal contracts were receiving a minimum of 37.5 cents an hour; this minimum became increasingly important after the launching of the defense program.

What proportion of the workers in the industry was affected by the 25-cent minimum is unknown, but the number was undoubtedly substantial. In March 1939, shortly before the 30-cent minimum went into effect, 40 percent of the workers were earning less than 30 cents an hour, and 50 percent were earning less than 32.5 cents. The influence of these minimum wages was consequently very great.

By March 1941 only 2.7 percent of the workers in the industry were earning less than 32.5 cents, but 62.4 percent were earning less than 40.0 cents an hour. Another 24.2 percent earned 40.0 cents but less than 52.5 cents, and 13.4 percent earned 52.5 cents or more.<sup>6</sup>

<sup>4</sup> The averages for both 1939 and 1941 are based on data which include the men's single pants industry, in which wages are slightly higher than in the cotton-garment industry.

<sup>5</sup> The minimum fixed for washable service apparel was 35 cents. Effective in August 1941, subsequent to the period covered by the Bureau's study, a 40-cent minimum was ordered by the Administrator for the entire industry.

<sup>6</sup> The figures on which these percentages are based include the men's single pants industry, in which wages were slightly higher than in the cotton-garment industry. Further details regarding the wage structure of the industry will be presented in an early issue of the *Monthly Labor Review*.

*Scope and Method of Study*

The Bureau's study was based primarily on the experience of 2,274 wage earners and clerks who were employed in 28 cotton-garment factories in March 1939 at earnings of less than 30 cents an hour.

For the purposes of this study it was not deemed necessary to select a strictly representative sample of plants in the industry; on the contrary, care was taken to select chiefly those plants for which the minimum wage had involved substantial readjustment. Thus, the plants were chosen exclusively from the work-clothing branch of the industry (manufacturing chiefly overalls, work pants, and work shirts) and consisted predominantly of low-wage concerns. In March 1939, 6 of the 28 plants paid wages averaging less than 30 cents an hour, 9 averaged 30 to 35 cents, 7 averaged 35 to 40 cents, and only 6 averaged 40 cents or more.

The South, with 13 of the 28 plants and 71.5 percent of all employees, was somewhat overrepresented.<sup>7</sup> Plants were included from both rural areas and large cities, as were also large and small establishments, and union and nonunion ones. The plants studied performed all productive operations, including cutting, stitching, pressing, and so forth. Contract shops, which are of minor importance in the work-clothing branch, were excluded.

The period represented by the major part of the study was March 1939 to March 1941. Information on a few items, however, covered the period March 1939 to July 1941. The beginning date was appropriate because of the Bureau's wage survey of the industry as of that month, which provided detailed information regarding the wage structure of several hundred plants; all of the plants included in the present study were selected from among those surveyed in 1939. Another wage survey was made as of March 1941. Presumably the separated workers discussed in the present article were not separated in adjustment to the 25-cent minimum wage, since this had already been in effect for several months. The 30-cent minimum, however, became effective some 7 months after the opening of the period studied.

All information for the present study was obtained by the Bureau's field representatives from pay rolls and other plant records or by personal interviews. Officials of each plant were asked to describe changes in organization, methods, or policies, adopted because of the minimum wage during the 2 years ending in March 1941. In addition, pay rolls for March 1939 and March 1941 were compared, to ascertain how many of the workers employed at the beginning of the period were still employed 2 years later, and how many had been separated. Addresses were secured for all separated workers who

<sup>7</sup> The northern plants were in New Jersey, Pennsylvania, West Virginia, Indiana, Illinois, Missouri and Kansas; the southern plants were in Maryland, Virginia, Georgia, Tennessee, and Texas.

had earned less than 30 cents an hour in March 1939, and many of these workers were traced and asked to provide information regarding their work experience subsequent to separation. As is apparent from table 1, fully 702 of the workers earning less than 30 cents an hour in March 1939 were no longer on the same pay roll 2 years later. Detailed information was secured for 463 of these through personal interview with the workers themselves or with relatives or close associates. An additional 77 workers provided brief information by mail.

TABLE 1.—*Number of Plants and Workers Included in Bureau's Survey of Separations in Cotton-Garment Industry, by Region*

Item	Total	North	South
Number of plants	28	15	13
Workers employed in these plants in March 1939	4,665	1,876	2,789
Earning 30 cents an hour or more in March 1939	2,391	1,229	1,162
Earning less than 30 cents an hour in March 1939	2,274	647	1,627
Still on pay roll in March 1941	1,572	429	1,143
Separated from plants by March 1941	702	218	484
Separated workers interviewed <sup>1</sup>	540	168	372

<sup>1</sup> Includes 77 workers (27 in the North and 50 in the South) from whom brief information was secured by mail.

### *Employer Adjustments to the Minimum Wage*

Fortunately for the manufacturers, the economic position of the cotton-garment industry was generally favorable following the effective date of the 30-cent minimum wage. Sales increased substantially during the latter part of 1939 and, following a decline in early 1940, registered additional gains in late 1940 and in 1941. Business activity was stimulated particularly by the general upswing of employment and by large Government contracts awarded in connection with the defense program. Prices also rose appreciably; the wholesale prices of standard grades of overalls, for example, increased by about 10 percent between March 1939 and March 1941.

A review of the experience of the 28 plants subsequent to March 1939 reveals that most of them made little or no change in methods, organization, or policies to effect successful adjustment to the 30-cent or the 32.5-cent minima. This was in spite of the fact that the effective dates of both these regulations were known to the industry months in advance.

### **INCREASES IN EARNINGS OF SUBMINIMUM WORKERS<sup>2</sup> RETAINED**

As has been seen from table 1, about two-thirds (1,572) of the workers who in March 1939 were earning less than 30 cents an hour

<sup>2</sup> The "subminimum workers" referred to in this section and throughout the remainder of the article are those workers who were earning less than 30 cents an hour in March 1939. The term does not include workers whose earnings were 30 cents an hour but less than the 32.5 cents subsequently established as the minimum wage.

were still employed in the same plants 2 years later. As one indication of the effect of the changes made by the various plants, it is of interest to see what happened to the hourly earnings of these workers who were retained. Examination of table 2 reveals that the earnings of most workers had risen sharply by March 1941. A negligible proportion of workers were earning less than 32.5 cents in 1941. Less than two-fifths of the workers were earning exactly the 32.5-cent minimum, and scarcely more than half were earning less than 35 cents an hour. The remainder had enjoyed a considerably greater increase than was required to attain the minimum. Median hourly earnings had risen from 26 to 34 cents, or by 31 percent. The proportionate increase was 22 percent in the North and 35 percent in the South.

**TABLE 2.—Percentage Distribution of 1,572 Identical Workers Earning Under 30 Cents an Hour in 1939 and Employed in Same Plant in 1941, by Average Hourly Earnings and by Region, 1939 and 1941**

Average hourly earnings	Total		North		South	
	1939	1941	1939	1941	1939	1941
Under 25.0 cents.....	6.7	0.4	3.3	0.5	8.0	0.4
Exactly 25.0 cents.....	27.5	.3	19.1	1.0	30.7	.1
25.1 and under 27.5 cents.....	37.4	.2	35.2	—	38.2	.3
27.5 and under 30.0 cents.....	28.4	.3	42.4	.2	23.1	.3
30.0 and under 32.5 cents.....	—	.4	—	.7	—	.3
Exactly 32.5 cents.....	38.7	—	52.0	—	33.8	—
32.6 and under 35.0 cents.....	15.3	—	10.2	—	17.1	—
35.0 and under 40.0 cents.....	35.8	—	24.5	—	39.9	—
40.0 and under 45.0 cents.....	6.1	—	7.1	—	5.7	—
45.0 and under 50.0 cents.....	1.7	—	3.1	—	1.2	—
50.0 cents and over.....	.8	—	.7	—	.9	—
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number reporting earnings.....	1,572	1,554	429	420	1,143	1,134
Earnings not reported.....	18	—	9	—	—	9
Total workers.....	1,572	1,572	429	429	1,143	1,143
Median earnings.....	\$0.26	\$0.34	\$0.27	\$0.33	\$0.26	\$0.35

### *Characteristics of the Subminimum Workers*

Table 3 reveals that an overwhelming majority (93 percent) of the subminimum workers were women and girls,<sup>9</sup> the proportions being slightly lower in the South than in the North. The percentage of female workers was somewhat smaller among the separated workers interviewed than among subminimum workers as a whole.

Most of the subminimum workers, in common with other workers in the industry, were white. Only 30 Negro workers were reported; 12 in the North and 18 in the South. Seven Negroes were interviewed by the Bureau's representatives.

\* In the work-clothing industry as a whole, according to the Bureau's 1939 wage survey, women and girls made up 85 percent of the total labor force.

TABLE 3.—Percentage Distribution of Subminimum Workers, by Sex and by Region

Sex	Total		North		South	
	All sub-minimum workers	Separated workers interviewed	All sub-minimum workers	Separated workers interviewed	All sub-minimum workers	Separated workers interviewed
Male.....	7.4	12.2	4.9	10.7	8.4	12.9
Female.....	92.6	87.8	95.1	89.3	91.6	87.1
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of workers.....	2,274	540	647	168	1,627	372

## OCCUPATION AND METHOD OF PAYMENT

The great majority of the subminimum workers were sewing-machine operators, this occupation being the most important numerically of any in the entire industry.

About two-thirds (65 percent) of the subminimum workers were paid on a piece (or production bonus) basis, the percentage being slightly higher in the North (66 percent) than in the South (64 percent). Machine operators are nearly always paid by the piece, while clerks, maintenance workers, and certain other groups are usually paid by the hour. About four-fifths (77 percent) of the separated workers were piece workers.

Other information is available only with regard to the separated workers who were interviewed, and cannot be considered as strictly representative of all subminimum workers. It is probable, for example, that the workers retained in the plants were somewhat older than the workers interviewed, who averaged scarcely more than 25 years. Table 4 reveals that the greatest concentration of the separated workers fell in the 5-year class 20 to 24, while fully three-fourths of all workers were under 35 years of age. Only 24 workers (4.5 percent) were 50 years of age or older. Workers in the North were slightly younger, on the average, than those in the South.

TABLE 4.—Percentage Distribution of (Separated) Workers Interviewed, by Age Class and by Region, July 1939

Age class	Total	North	South
Under 18 years.....	1.5	0.6	1.9
18-19 years.....	11.7	13.3	10.9
20-24 years.....	32.9	26.8	35.6
25-29 years.....	20.9	24.3	19.5
30-34 years.....	10.5	14.5	8.7
35-39 years.....	9.2	9.7	9.0
40-44 years.....	4.5	4.2	4.6
45-49 years.....	4.3	4.8	4.1
50 years and over.....	4.5	1.8	5.7
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number reporting age.....	531	165	366
Age not reported.....	9	3	6
Total workers.....	540	168	372

Of the workers providing information as to schooling, almost three-fourths (78.1 percent) had finished grade school, and a fifth (19.1 percent) had gone through high school. A larger proportion of northern than of southern workers had been through grade school, but 12 southern and no northern workers had gone beyond high school.

Although the workers were young, on the average, a large majority of them (90 percent) had had at least a year of experience in the industry by March 1939. Only 3.3 percent had had less than 3 months' experience; 41 percent had had 5 years' experience or more; and 15 percent had had 10 years' experience or more.

A substantial number of the workers were married and had children. Information on this point, however, was obtained as of July 1941 and undoubtedly exaggerates somewhat the number of married persons and of parents in 1939; as will be noted later, marriage and child-birth were important causes of separations. Of 524 persons for whom information on marital status was obtained, only 22 percent were single in July 1941, 70 percent were married, and 8 percent were separated, widowed, or divorced. Of 474 workers for whom information regarding children was obtained, 50 percent had no children and 50 percent had 1 child or more. Only 24 workers reported more than 3 children.

Only a little more than a third of the workers (36.5 percent) reported that their earnings were the chief source of their family income. Since a number of these were single persons living alone, it is clear that relatively few of the workers had other persons dependent solely upon them. Many of the woman workers were supplementing the income of their husbands.

### *Extent of Separations*

Of the 2,274 workers included in the Bureau's study who were earning less than 30 cents an hour in March 1939, 702 were no longer on the pay rolls of the respective plants in March 1941, but had been separated for one reason or another. The separations during the 2-year period consequently amounted to 30.9 percent of the total, and the average monthly separation rate was 1.5 percent. As compared with other rates in common use, it should be mentioned, this rate tends to underestimate the extent of separations, since it does not include temporary lay-offs nor extended absences caused by sickness. The monthly number of workers on which it is based, moreover, was not maintained by accessions of "floaters" and other temporary workers, but consisted of a constantly diminishing group of relatively stable employees. Even so, the rate does not appear to be particularly high for one of the apparel industries, in which monthly separation rates frequently

average more than 4 percent over long periods, and in which "quits and discharges" alone often exceed 2 percent.

It is of interest to note that separations were relatively more numerous among the subminimum workers than among higher-paid workers in the same plants (table 5). Even among the workers earning 30 cents or more in March 1939, 22.8 percent were separated by March 1941. It is clear, therefore, that inability to earn the 30-cent minimum wage constituted by no means the only reason for separation. It will be observed that the separation rates<sup>10</sup> of the subminimum workers, however, show an indirect relationship to the workers' earnings. Thus, the highest rate, 38.0 percent, existed for workers paid exactly 25.0 cents an hour, a lower rate for those paid 25.1 and under 27.5 cents, and a still lower rate for those paid 27.5 and under 30.0 cents. An exception is noted in the case of the workers receiving less than 25.0 cents an hour, but because of the small number and exceptional character<sup>11</sup> of these workers, this exception may be ignored. Among the workers paid 30 cents or more in 1939, the separation rates also varied indirectly with average earnings. The consistency of this pattern, when the data are segregated by region and along other lines, leaves little doubt that the earnings of the workers exercised a constant though moderate influence on separations.

TABLE 5.—*Separations of Workers on Pay Rolls in March 1939, by Earnings of Workers and by Region*

Average hourly earnings in March 1939	Total		North		South				
	On pay roll in March 1939	Separated by March 1941		On pay roll in March 1939	Separated by March 1941		On pay roll in March 1939	Separated by March 1941	
		Number	Per- cent		Number	Per- cent		Number	Per- cent
All workers.....	4,665	1,246	26.7	1,876	455	24.3	2,789	791	28.4
Under 30.0 cents.....	2,274	702	30.9	647	218	33.7	1,627	484	29.7
30.0 cents and over.....	2,391	544	22.8	1,229	237	19.3	1,162	307	26.4
Under 25.0 cents.....	155	52	33.5	16	4	25.0	139	48	34.5
Exactly 25.0 cents.....	697	265	38.0	136	54	39.7	561	211	37.6
25.1 and under 27.5 cents.....	821	233	28.4	234	83	35.5	587	150	25.6
27.5 and under 30.0 cents.....	601	152	25.3	261	77	29.5	340	75	22.1
30.0 and under 32.5 cents.....	589	183	31.1	186	67	36.0	403	116	28.8
32.5 and under 35.0 cents.....	500	141	28.2	158	48	30.4	342	93	27.2
35.0 cents and over.....	1,302	220	16.9	885	122	13.8	417	98	23.5

#### VARIATIONS BY TYPE OF PLANT

The proportion of subminimum workers separated during the 2-year period varied widely from plant to plant. The following list of separation rates reveals that one plant had no separations at all, while

<sup>10</sup> This term is used for convenience to refer to the percentage of workers separated during the entire 2-year period.

<sup>11</sup> Many of them were learners.

in another fully 58.0 percent of all workers were separated. Sixteen of the plants, however, had separation rates ranging from 20.0 to 37.8 percent.

	Separation rate (percent)		Separation rate (percent)
All plants.....	30.9	Plant No. 14.....	28.6
Plant No. 1.....	58.0	Plant No. 15.....	27.3
Plant No. 2.....	48.6	Plant No. 16.....	25.0
Plant No. 3.....	44.4	Plant No. 17.....	24.3
Plant No. 4.....	42.0	Plant No. 18.....	23.4
Plant No. 5.....	40.0	Plant No. 19.....	23.1
Plant No. 6.....	37.8	Plant No. 20.....	21.7
Plant No. 7.....	36.8	Plant No. 21.....	20.0
Plant No. 8.....	35.9	Plant No. 22.....	16.5
Plant No. 9.....	35.9	Plant No. 23.....	15.2
Plant No. 10.....	31.5	Plant No. 24.....	13.6
Plant No. 11.....	30.0	Plant No. 25.....	13.5
Plant No. 12.....	29.4	Plant No. 26.....	13.3
Plant No. 13.....	29.1	Plant No. 27.....	7.7
		Plant No. 28.....	.0

Segregation of the plants into groups with common characteristics reveals the influence of a number of underlying factors. Plants paying high average wages in March 1939, for example, had relatively more separations than those paying low wages. Thus, 32.3 percent of the subminimum workers in plants paying an average hourly wage of 32.5 cents or more were separated, but only 30.6 percent of those in plants paying lower average wages. Plants that raised piece rates lost somewhat fewer (26.4 percent) of their subminimum workers than did plants which made no change in piece rates (33.1 percent).

Plants in which fewer than 20 percent of the workers earned less than 30 cents an hour in 1939 had an average separation rate of 32.8 percent, while the ratio in plants with 50 percent or more of subminimum workers was 30.4 percent. A further analysis of the data supports the indication that the proportion of subminimum workers exercised little influence on the relative number of separations.

#### VARIATIONS BY TYPE OF WORKER

Differences in the separation rates of various groups of workers were considerably sharper than those characterizing the plants. Thus the rate for males (46.2) was much higher than that for females (29.6). This may have reflected the greater mobility of male workers, for many of them quit to accept better jobs. Males had higher separation rates than females both in the North and in the South.

Separation rates by age of worker are not available, but there is little doubt that the younger workers were more than proportionately represented among the separated workers. Only 7 of the 30 submini-

mum Negro workers employed in 1939 were separated by March 1941; these figures yield a rate of 23.3.

Table 6, which presents separation rates for the several occupations, reveals that separations were less common among the operators than among most other groups. It is probable that on the whole the machine operators were more specialized in their abilities than the workers in other occupations, and consequently less free to change jobs. Examiners and inspectors had the highest separation rate, closely followed by spreaders. Clippers and trimmers had the lowest.

TABLE 6.—*Separation Rates of Workers Earning Less Than 30 Cents an Hour in 1939, by Occupational Group and by Region*

Occupational Group	Total		North		South				
	On pay roll in March 1939	Separated by March 1941		On pay roll in March 1939	Separated by March 1941		On pay roll in March 1939	Separated by March 1941	
		Number	Percent		Number	Percent		Number	Percent
All groups.....	2,274	702	30.9	647	218	33.7	1,627	484	29.7
Clerical workers.....	23	8	34.8	4	1	(1)	19	7	36.8
Clippers and trimmers.....	57	11	19.3	11	4	(1)	46	7	15.2
Examiners and inspectors.....	108	52	48.1	38	17	44.7	70	35	50.0
Floor workers.....	25	10	40.0	8	4	(1)	17	6	35.3
Folder and turners.....	29	10	34.5	8	3	(1)	21	7	33.3
Operators.....	1,829	538	29.4	547	178	32.5	1,282	360	28.1
Packing, shipping, and maintenance workers.....	85	27	31.8	10	4	(1)	75	23	30.7
Pressers.....	74	27	36.5	13	4	(1)	61	23	37.7
Spreaders.....	32	14	43.8	4	1	(1)	28	13	46.4
Miscellaneous workers.....	12	5	41.7	4	2	(1)	8	3	(1)

<sup>1</sup> Percent not given, because of small number of cases involved.

### Reasons for Separation

Information regarding reason for separation, employment experience subsequent to separation, and other pertinent matters was secured from a group of 540 of the separated workers, most of whom were personally interviewed by the Bureau's field representatives. Reason for separation was also secured from the employers whenever possible. Although every effort was made to cover a representative group of workers, it is recognized that there is probably some overrepresentation among the 540 workers of those who were recently separated, those who did not move far away, and those who for other reasons were most easy to find and most willing to provide information.

#### VOLUNTARY AND INVOLUNTARY SEPARATIONS

Employers and workers agreed that the greater number of the separations were voluntary. Employers' records, which often failed to give the reason for leaving, identified only 76 workers as having been discharged or laid off and listed nearly 3 times as many (227) as having resigned or quit. The reports of the workers themselves (or

of their friends or associates) provided much more complete information regarding reason for separation. Out of 531 workers for whom such information was obtained, only 88 were reported as discharged or laid off, 433 were reported as having resigned or quit, and 11 died or were drafted for military service. Since employers' records could be expected to be more complete in the case of discharged workers than for those who left voluntarily, these two versions of reason for leaving appear to be fairly consistent and lead to the conclusion that only about 1 out of 6 of the separations were due to discharge or lay-off.

The involuntary separations, to be sure, were more common in some plants than in others—and among some groups of workers. Relying on the workers' reports, because of their greater completeness, it is indicated that 21.2 percent of the workers in the South, but only 6.5 percent in the North, were discharged or laid off. Discharges and lay-offs accounted for 16.2 percent of the separations in places of less than 100,000, and 19.2 percent in larger places.

Plants with a large proportion (over 40 percent) of subminimum workers discharged relatively fewer workers than did plants with few (less than 20 percent) subminimum workers, the respective percentages of workers separated due to discharge or lay-off being 11.1 and 23.5. Only 8.2 percent of the workers receiving 27.5 to 30.0 cents an hour in March 1939, but 14.3 percent of those paid less than 25.0 cents, were discharged or laid off. Only 14.3 percent of the male workers, but 16.9 percent of the females, were separated by discharge or lay-off. Three of the 7 Negroes for whom information is available were discharged. Fully 38.7 percent of the separated workers 40 years of age or older were discharged or laid off, as compared with only 12.3 percent of the workers under 30.

#### SPECIFIC REASONS FOR SEPARATION

Table 7, which presents the reasons for separation in further detail, brings out interesting additional facts. It will be noted, for example, that the employers cited unsatisfactory production as the most common cause of discharge, while the workers named other reasons.<sup>12</sup>

The most common single reason for resigning, as given by the workers, was to accept another job. The number of workers giving this reason alone was as great as the total number discharged or laid off and clearly reflects the favorable employment opportunities existing after March 1939.

<sup>12</sup> It should be borne in mind in interpreting table 7 that the percentage distributions representing the workers' reports are based on substantially larger numbers of separations than the distributions representing the employers' reports. Consequently, disagreement of the employers and workers as to the percentage of separations due to a given cause does not necessarily imply direct contradictions with regard to identical workers.

TABLE 7.—*Percentage Distribution of Separated Workers, by Reason for Separation, as Reported by Employer and by Worker, and by Region*

Reason for separation	Total		North		South	
	Employer's report	Worker's report	Employer's report	Worker's report	Employer's report	Worker's report
Discharged or laid off	24.2	16.6	24.2	6.5	24.2	21.2
Unsatisfactory production	12.7	4.3	12.1	1.2	12.9	5.8
Other reasons	11.5	12.3	12.1	5.3	11.3	15.4
Resigned or quit	72.3	81.5	71.3	92.3	72.6	76.6
Other job	8.3	16.5	15.2	16.7	6.5	16.5
Ill health due to work		2.8		6.5		1.1
Ill health, no mention of work	10.8	11.5	9.1	13.1	11.3	10.7
Increased work		1.5		1.2		1.7
Marriage	12.1	8.7	16.7	7.7	10.9	9.1
Maternity	8.3	10.7	1.5	16.1	10.1	8.3
School	2.9	2.3			3.6	3.3
Family left town	9.6	5.6	3.0	2.4	11.3	7.2
To keep house	3.2	6.0	1.5	10.1	3.6	4.1
Personal disagreement at work	.3	1.9		2.4	.4	1.7
Resigned for other reasons related to work	1.3	10.0	1.5	10.1	1.2	9.9
Resigned for other reasons not related to work	1.6	4.0	3.0	6.0	1.2	3.0
Resigned, specific reason not given	13.9		19.8		12.5	
Other separations	3.5	1.9	4.5	1.2	3.2	2.2
Drafted	2.5	1.3	3.0	1.2	2.4	1.4
Died	1.0	.6	1.5		.8	.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number reporting type of separation	314	531	66	168	248	363
Type of separation not reported	226	9	102		124	9
Total workers	540	540	168	168	372	372

A surprisingly large number (76, according to the workers' reports) resigned because of actual or threatened illness. Fifteen of these resigned because of physical or mental strain resulting from their work, several of them mentioning that they had difficulty maintaining the required production. Sixty-one failed to mention their work as a cause, but since this question was not always raised, some of these, too, may have suffered strain from their jobs. Forty-six workers reported that they resigned to be married and keep house; 57 resigned because of approaching childbirth. Thirty workers resigned because their families moved out of town.

### Worker Adjustments After Separation

A substantial majority of the workers appear to have accomplished their personal and economic adjustment after separation without great loss or suffering. This is not surprising, in view of the fact that most of the separations were voluntary.

#### CHANGE OF RESIDENCE

A large proportion of the workers still lived in the same vicinity in July 1941 as in March 1939. Fully 64.1 percent of the 533 workers for whom information is available lived in the same town in which they

had worked, and another 9.6 percent lived outside the town but within 10 miles of the plant in which they had been employed. These groups account for nearly three-fourths of the workers. An additional 5.7 percent lived 10 but less than 25 miles away from the plant, 10.4 percent lived 25 but less than 100 miles away, and only 10.2 percent lived 100 miles or more away from the plant. Workers living in distant places, to be sure, were less likely to be included in the Bureau's study than those living near the plants.<sup>13</sup> The above figures consequently tend to underestimate the extent of the movement that actually occurred. On the other hand, movement from the locality did not necessarily imply difficulty in making occupational readjustment, since some workers are known to have quit work because their families moved.

The proportion of workers moving away from the vicinity in which they had worked was somewhat greater in the South than in the North. Thus, 25.6 percent of the southern workers reporting, but only 9.0 percent of the northern, lived 25 miles or more from their former place of work in July 1941. About one-third (32.3 percent) of the workers who had been employed in places of 5,000 population or less lived 25 miles or more away, but only 1 out of 20 (5.3 percent) of those from cities of 100,000 or more. Fully 22.9 percent of the workers under 30 years of age, but only 5.8 percent of those 40 or older, lived 25 miles or more from their previous work place.

#### **NUMBER SEEKING WORK AFTER SEPARATION**

Almost half (44.2 percent) of the workers for whom information is available did not seek work at all after being separated from their jobs. This proportion seems reasonably consistent with the information or reason for separation presented in table 7. An overwhelming majority of the persons leaving the labor market were women or girls.

#### **UNEMPLOYMENT**

Few of the workers seeking jobs suffered seriously from unemployment. Table 8 includes only the 477 workers who were separated prior to January 1, 1941, and who had consequently had at least 6 months in which to secure jobs. It will be noted that fully 60.0 percent of the workers entering the labor market had no unemployment lasting as long as 1 month before finding work. Only 19.3 percent of the workers were unemployed over 6 months before finding their first jobs. On July 1, 1941, only 6.0 percent of these workers had been unable to find a first job and were still seeking work.

<sup>13</sup> An attempt was made, however, to find all workers, either by personal visit or by letter.

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TABLE 8.—*Percentage Distribution of Workers Separated Prior to January 1, 1941, by Duration of Unemployment and by Region*

Duration of unemployment	Unemployment securing first job			Total unemployment to July 1, 1941		
	Total	North	South	Total	North	South
No unemployment.....	60.0	62.4	59.2	52.5	50.0	53.5
1 month.....	3.6	2.9	3.9	3.7	1.5	4.4
2 months.....	6.2	10.1	4.9	5.9	7.4	5.4
3 months.....	5.1	2.9	5.8	5.5	7.4	4.9
4-6 months.....	5.8	5.8	5.8	6.2	8.8	5.4
7-12 months.....	11.3	11.6	11.2	15.1	17.6	14.2
13-24 months.....	5.8	4.3	6.3	7.4	4.4	8.3
25-28 months.....	2.2		2.9	3.7	2.9	3.9
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number reporting duration of unemployment.....	275	69	206	272	68	204
Duration of unemployment not reported.....	7		7	10	1	9
Total remaining in labor market.....	282	69	213	282	69	213
Not remaining in labor market.....	195	69	126	195	69	126
Total workers separated prior to January 1, 1941.....	477	138	339	477	138	339

Table 8 also indicates the total amount of unemployment experienced by these workers to July 1, 1941. It will be noted that 52.5 percent of the workers who had been in the labor market had experienced no unemployment or been out of a job for less than 1 month, and only 26.2 percent had been unemployed over 6 months. Of the workers who were separated before January 1, 1941, and who wanted to work, only about one-seventh (14.0 percent) were unemployed as much as 50 percent of the time they were in the labor market.

Unemployment was a slightly less serious problem for persons 40 years of age or older than for persons under 30. Women and girls suffered more than men from unemployment. Unemployment was also more common among workers in small towns than among those in large cities.

#### PUBLIC ASSISTANCE

Only a scattered few of the workers were so hard pressed as to require public assistance for themselves or their families. The families of 27 workers received public assistance of one type or another after the worker's separation. WPA employment and mothers' aid were the most common type of assistance. One family, not included in the 27, received Federal surplus commodities.

#### FIRST JOBS

A large proportion (48.1 percent) of the workers who stayed in the labor market turned to the apparel industries for their first jobs. Another 10.7 percent obtained jobs in other manufacturing industries, and 8.7 percent found positions in wholesale or retail trade. Three-

fourths (75.3 percent) of the workers secured first jobs in establishments which were reported to engage in interstate commerce.

The occupations of the workers in their first jobs are given in table 9. It will be seen that a large proportion (48.9 percent) of the workers were classified as apparel operatives, most of them being sewing-machine operators. Another 15.3 percent were operatives in other industries, but no other single occupational class was of much importance.

TABLE 9.—*Occupations of Workers in First Jobs After Separation and in Jobs Held July 1, 1941, by Region*

Work status and occupation	First occupation						Occupation on July 1, 1941					
	Total		North		South		Total		North		South	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Total	540		168		372		540		168		372	
Not in labor market	246	100.0	94	100.0	152	100.0	283	100.0	103	100.0	180	100.0
Housewives	203	82.5	81	86.2	122	80.2	229	80.9	88	85.4	141	78.4
Students	3	1.2			3	2.0	4	1.4			4	2.2
Military service	11	4.5	3	3.2	8	5.3	16	5.7	3	2.9	13	7.2
Other	29	11.8	10	10.6	19	12.5	34	12.0	12	11.7	22	12.2
Employed or seeking work, occupation reported	288	100.0	73	100.0	215	100.0	251	100.0	64	100.0	187	100.0
Professional	2	.7			2	.9	1	.4			1	.5
Farmers	1	.3			1	.5						
Other proprietors and officials	4	1.4	2	2.7	2	.9	5	2.0	3	4.7	2	1.1
Clerical	8	2.8	1	1.4	7	3.3	8	3.2	3	4.7	5	2.7
Salesmen and saleswomen	14	4.9	5	6.8	9	4.2	7	2.8	3	4.7	4	2.1
Craftsmen, foremen, etc.	4	1.4	1	1.4	3	1.4	2	.8			2	1.1
Laundry operatives	2	.7			2	.9	1	.4			1	.5
Mechanics' helpers	3	1.0	3	4.1			1	.4	1	1.6		
Textile operatives	10	3.5	4	5.5	6	2.8	10	4.0	2	3.1	8	4.3
Apparel operatives	141	48.9	37	50.6	104	48.4	110	43.7	26	40.5	84	45.0
Other operatives	34	11.8	8	11.0	26	12.1	30	12.0	9	14.1	21	11.2
Domestic-service workers	6	2.1	1	1.4	5	2.3	5	2.0	1	1.6	4	2.1
Restaurant workers	9	3.1	2	2.7	7	3.3	3	1.2			3	1.6
Other service workers	4	1.4	1	1.4	3	1.4	6	2.4	2	3.1	4	2.1
Farm laborers	2	.7			2	.9	2	.8			2	1.1
Other laborers	12	4.2	4	5.5	8	3.7	11	4.4	4	6.3	7	3.7
Unemployed	132	11.1	34	5.5	28	13.0	40	19.5	10	15.6	39	20.9
Occupation not reported	6		1		5		6		1		5	

<sup>1</sup> Includes persons who sought work for a time but later dropped out of the labor market; also persons unemployed continuously after separation.

Table 10 presents the classified hourly earnings of the workers who remained in the labor market. It is of interest to observe that a large proportion of the workers earned more than the 30-cent minimum wage in their first jobs. Only 12.4 percent (in addition to the unemployed) earned less than 30 cents an hour, while 14.4 percent earned 40 cents but less than 50 cents, and 9.2 percent earned 50 cents or more. More than four-fifths (85.8 percent) of the employed workers were receiving appreciably higher hourly earnings

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in their first jobs than they had received in March 1939;<sup>14</sup> a few (6.4 percent) were receiving about the same (within 2 cents an hour); and the remainder (7.8 percent) were receiving less. Weekly earnings, too, were considerably higher at the first jobs than at the jobs held by the workers in March 1939.

TABLE 10.—*Percentage Distribution of Separated Workers by Average Hourly Earnings, in First Jobs Held After Separation, and in Jobs Held July 1, 1941*

Earnings group	First job			Job held on July 1, 1941		
	Total	North	South	Total	North	South
<i>Average hourly earnings</i>						
Employed, earning—						
Under 15.0 cents	0.4			0.5	0.5	0.6
15.0 and under 17.5 cents	1.6			2.2	.5	.6
17.5 and under 20.0 cents	.8			1.1	.5	.6
20.0 and under 22.5 cents	3.6	4.6	3.2	1.8	1.7	1.9
22.5 and under 25.0 cents	.4	1.5				
Exactly 25.0 cents	4.0	1.5	4.0	.5		.6
25.1 and under 27.5 cents						
27.5 and under 30.0 cents	1.6	3.1	1.1	1.4	1.7	1.2
Exactly 30.0 cents	9.6	4.6	11.4	4.1	5.2	3.7
30.1 and under 32.5 cents	1.2	3.1	.5	1.4	5.2	
Exactly 32.5 cents	13.2	9.2	14.6	8.6	6.9	9.3
32.6 and under 35.0 cents	1.6	1.5	1.6	.9		1.2
35.0 and under 37.5 cents	11.6	4.6	14.1	12.6	3.4	16.0
37.5 and under 40.0 cents	14.0	17.0	13.0	14.9	10.3	16.7
40.0 and under 42.5 cents	10.0	17.0	7.6	11.8	12.1	11.7
42.5 and under 45.0 cents	1.6	3.1	1.1	1.4	1.7	1.2
45.0 and under 47.5 cents	2.4	1.5	2.7	3.2	1.7	3.7
47.5 and under 50.0 cents	.4		.5	1.4	1.7	1.2
50.0 cents and over	9.2	21.5	4.0	12.3	31.1	5.6
Unemployed	12.8	6.2	15.0	22.2	17.3	24.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number reporting hourly earnings	250	65	185	220	58	162
Hourly earnings not reported	44	9	35	37	7	30
Total in labor market	294	74	220	257	65	192
Not in labor market	246	94	152	283	103	180
Total workers	540	168	372	540	168	372

#### JOBs HELD IN JULY 1941

A review of the status of the workers on July 1, 1941, reveals that a number of important changes had taken place. An additional 37 workers had stopped work, most of them to become housewives. Only 47.0 percent of the 540 workers interviewed by the Bureau's representatives remained in the labor market. Forty-nine workers, 19.5 percent of those in the labor market, were unemployed. There is no reason to believe that this proportion was greater than in the previous periods, but quite naturally it was larger than the number of workers who had been unemployed constantly since separation.

A substantial number of workers had moved out of the apparel industries and into other types of jobs. The proportion of workers

<sup>14</sup> Some of the workers, to be sure, had received increases in pay subsequent to March 1939 but before their separation.

classified as apparel operatives had dropped from 48.9 percent in the first jobs to 43.7 percent in the jobs held July 1, 1941. The proportion of employed persons working for companies engaged in interstate commerce had increased slightly to 79.3 percent.

Hourly and weekly earnings were slightly higher, on the average, in the jobs held July 1, 1941, than in the first jobs after separation. It should be borne in mind, however, that a number of workers were unemployed or had dropped out of the labor market, and that these were probably less competent and had earned lower wages than those who retained their jobs. Of the 220 employed workers whose hourly earnings are reported in table 15, fully 93.7 percent were earning appreciably more than they had earned in March 1939, 1.7 percent were earning about the same (within 2 cents per hour), and 4.6 percent were earning less.

Comparing the July 1941 earnings of the separated workers (table 15) with the March 1941 earnings of subminimum workers who were not separated (table 2), it is of interest to note that on the average the two groups had fared about equally well. The median hourly wage for the separated workers who had jobs was 3 cents higher (37 cents, as compared with 34) than that for the workers retained, but this difference may have been due in part to the 4-month difference in the periods studied. The workers retained on the pay roll showed a considerably greater concentration at exactly 32.5 cents an hour, and at 35.0 but less than 40.0 cents an hour.

#### **EMPLOYMENT EXPERIENCE OF DISCHARGED<sup>15</sup> WORKERS**

Of particular interest is the experience of the 88 workers who were discharged or laid off. This group may be considered to include most of the workers who were displaced directly as a result of the minimum wage. The occupational readjustment of these workers was somewhat less successful than that of the workers who resigned or quit.

The proportion of the discharged workers moving 25 miles or more from their previous place of work (19.3 percent) was little different from that of the workers who left voluntarily (21.0 percent). However, four-fifths (79.3 percent) of the discharged workers and only half (50.5 percent) of those who resigned or quit again sought work after their separation.

Workers who were discharged before January 1, 1941, and who attempted to secure other jobs numbered 62.<sup>16</sup> Of these, fully 40 were unemployed for 1 month or more and 20 were unemployed more than 6 months before securing another job. On July 1, 1941, 15 of the 62 discharged workers were still unemployed and seeking work,

<sup>15</sup> Where used in the present section, this term is understood to include workers laid off.

<sup>16</sup> One other discharged worker who remained in the labor market is excluded from this discussion because of lack of information as to his employment experience.

and 13 of these had been seeking jobs unsuccessfully for more than a year. On the latter date, 26 of the 62 workers had been unemployed at least half of the time they were in the labor market. A comparison of these figures with those presented earlier for the entire group of workers interviewed clearly reveals that the discharged workers suffered from special handicaps.

A relatively smaller proportion of the discharged workers than of those who resigned or quit secured jobs in the apparel industries. Only 37.7 percent of the first jobs reported by discharged workers were classified as "apparel operatives," and only 31.9 percent of the workers employed on July 1, 1941, were in this occupational group. In contrast, 49.4 percent of the voluntarily separated workers who were employed on July 1, 1941, were apparel operatives.

Only 43.5 percent of the discharged workers who were again at work on July 1, 1941, were employed in industries which were engaged in interstate commerce.

Although the discharged workers experienced considerable difficulty in securing other jobs, the earnings of those employed on July 1, 1941, were almost as favorable as those of workers who had left voluntarily. The median hourly earnings were 36 cents, or 2 cents higher than the median for subminimum workers who had not been separated (cf. table 2). None of the discharged workers earned more than 50 cents per hour. The median weekly earnings of discharged workers were \$13.89; no worker in this group earned a weekly wage of more than \$20.

## WOMAN DOMESTIC WORKERS IN WASHINGTON, D. C., 1940

By GRACE FOX, *Chairman Interracial Committee, Y. W. C. A.*

### *Summary*

A STUDY of woman domestic workers in Washington, D. C., made in 1940, developed the following facts:

The weekly schedule for full-time workers ranged from 42 to 105 hours. The median daily schedule for full-time white workers was 12 hours and 50 minutes; for Negro workers 11 hours and 33 minutes. The weekly cash wage for full-time resident employees ranged from \$3.50 to \$18.75. The median weekly wage for 564 women was \$8.10. The median earnings for 427 workers for the year 1939 from domestic work were \$350. Wages bore no fixed relation to hours or nature of work, to type of employer's household, to length of service, nor to the education or special training of the employees. They depended upon the capacity of the employer to pay and upon the need of the employee for work at a given moment.

Most of the Negro workers interviewed preferred to live out, owing in part to the generally poor accommodations allotted to them in the homes of their employers and in part to the fact that a large proportion were married and had homes of their own. The resident employees were in general the better-paid white women who were given comfortable living quarters and some provision for social life.

Forty-eight percent of the workers were granted vacations annually but only 43 percent of that number were paid in part or in full during their holiday. Still smaller numbers of employers provided medical care, compensation for accidents or insurance for their employees and only 28 percent of the employers paid their employees during illness.

The cost of living for these domestic workers was found to be high in relation to their low earnings and lack of social security. Rents absorbed about half of their weekly wages. The range in average rent expenditure for the various types of workers was from \$3.64 to \$5.28 per week. Clothing was often given to them. The most costly item in their clothing budgets was hosiery.

The majority of these workers carried some type of insurance, the average weekly cost of which ranged from 23 to 78 cents. A large number of household employees were members of churches and lodges which sometimes offered insurance benefits to their members. Sixty-seven percent of 514 women made an average annual contribution of \$11.83 to churches.

Lack of standardization in hours of labor, wages, and other conditions surrounding the job was an outstanding characteristic of domestic employment, as revealed in this study.

In general, it appeared that only a relatively small minority of the workers interviewed were well-satisfied employees.

From the survey as a whole it appears that competent women do not wish to enter domestic service. The reasons lie in the unsatisfactory working conditions and limited opportunities which that field of work offers today. Trained employers appear to be almost as rare as trained employees. The basic grievances of mistress and maid are highly personal. Facts explaining them are hard to obtain and often defy generalization. Inconsiderate employers find it difficult to tell the truth about their labor policies and resent investigation of them, while most workers, disliking their position, refuse to be known as domestic employees when asked about their work.

### *Reasons for Washington Survey*

Washington as a city is unique. Since the business of government is its main concern, it is largely the home of officials and clerks and those who supply their needs. There is no important industrial development to compete with household employment for the labor of women. Large numbers of women, married as well as single, hold Government positions and depend upon other women to do their domestic work. The proximity of Washington to the South makes access easy to the reserves of Negro and mountain white labor, but the competent women in these groups often use Washington merely as a tarrying ground to gain experience for better-paid jobs farther north. In this city of 663,091 persons, of whom 345,569 are women, there are only 24,825 women employed in private households. Since 1930 the population of the capital has increased 36 percent and the number of domestic workers only 18 percent.<sup>1</sup> The 11 training schools operating in 1940 have failed to meet the demand for skilled household workers. As the war effort increases and more people seek residence in the capital the shortage becomes acute. Competent women find more lucrative employment in the expanding Government departments. The husbands of others get better jobs and make it unnecessary for their wives to work. In general, only the less responsible and inexperienced workers are left to respond to the demands for domestic service.

Local studies are merely an approach to the general problem.<sup>2</sup> A survey of household work in Washington which the Y. W. C. A. made

<sup>1</sup> Sixteenth Census of the United States Press Release; Series P-8, No. 23.

<sup>2</sup> In 1890 the United States population was 62,947,714, the number of woman domestic workers 1,433,270; in 1910 the population, 91,972,266 and woman domestic workers, 1,828,891; in 1930 the population, 122,775,046 and woman domestic workers, 1,991,337. These figures are for hotels, boarding houses, and private homes. (11th Census of U. S. 1890 XV, Population, Pt. 2; 13th Census of U. S. IV, Occupation Statistics; and 15th Census U. S. V, Population.)

in the spring of 1940<sup>3</sup> presents the testimony of 586 woman employees in private households, given anonymously and voluntarily. By guaranteeing anonymity, it was possible to reach some women in all grades and all types of employment, from the most insecure, poorly paid day workers who live in alley slums to the highly skilled, well compensated employees, dwelling in some comfort and relative security in their own homes or those of their employers.

### *Characteristics of the Employees*

The 586 household workers here discussed included 494 regular employees, 113 of whom held part-time jobs. The remaining 92 women were day workers; their jobs were irregular or they were paid by the hour, day, or job. In each group the majority were Negroes—427 among the regular employees and 87 among the day workers.<sup>3a</sup> The white minority of 72 were in general natives of the United States, only one-eighth of them being of foreign birth. Among the regular full-time employees slightly more than one-fifth of the Negroes lived at their place of employment, a small number in comparison to the white group, where three-fourths were resident workers. Only a few of these domestic workers were newcomers to Washington, the average length of residence in the city for the 586 women being 7.1 years.

Of the 486 regular employees reporting the nature of their work, the great majority, 372, did general housework and cooking, 34 did general housework without cooking, and 18 combined cleaning with laundry. In the specialized groups there were 16 cooks, 13 cleaners, 4 laundresses, and 22 nursemaids. Among the 90 day workers reporting their type of employment, 34 did cleaning in addition to laundry, 27 general housework with cooking, and 7 general housework without cooking, 12 were cleaners, 6 were laundresses, and 4 apparently took what they could get.

<sup>3</sup> This study was a project of the Interracial Committee of the Y. W. C. A. and the Phyllis Wheatley Y. W. C. A., which the boards of both associations sponsored. It rapidly became a city-wide undertaking in which Government departments, universities, churches, settlement houses, employment bureaus, vocational schools, the National Youth Administration, and many women's organizations liberally cooperated. Students in sociology and economics from George Washington, American, Catholic, Howard, and Maryland Universities interviewed the workers at their churches, settlement houses, vocational schools, employment agencies and clubs, in accordance with a schedule and instructions which Government and university experts had helped to develop. These findings were checked by a random sample of employers interviewed by members of many of the women's organizations of the city. Gifts in money from the Phelps-Stokes Fund and from Mrs. Robert S. Brookings made possible the editing and coding of the schedules which the International Business Machines Corporation generously tabulated as its part in furthering an understanding of this civic problem. Special gratitude is due to Dr. Esther Cole Franklin of the National American Association of University Women, to Miss Mary Anderson and Miss Isadore Spring of the Women's Bureau, to Dr. Faith Williams, Miss Alice Hanson, Miss Frances Rice, and Mrs. Mary C. Ruark of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, to Miss Helen Herrmann and Mrs. Malcolm Proudfoot of the League of Women Shoppers, and to Dr. Mildred Paten, Miss Thelma Drice, Mrs. Ella Putman, Mrs. Lincoln Gordon, and Mrs. Jean Collier Brown for their important individual contributions to the completion of this work.

<sup>3a</sup> This sample was checked by a random sample of employers of Washington which indicated that it would give a more accurate picture of the city as a whole had there been a slightly higher percentage of white women and a larger proportion of part-time workers.

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TABLE 1.—*Employment Status and Race of Domestic Employees Included in Washington, D. C., Study*

Employment status	Total		White	Negro
	Number	Percent		
All domestic employees	586	100.0	72	514
Percent	100.0		12.3	87.7
Regular workers:				
Full-time, living in	108	18.4	51	57
Full-time, living out	273	46.6	13	260
Part-time	113	19.3	3	110
Day workers	92	15.7	5	87

In comparison with many groups of household workers, this group was young. Of the 488 regular employees who gave their age, 380 were under 40 years old and only 48 were over 50 years. Among 490 who discussed their marital status, 40 percent were single, 31 percent married, and 29 percent widowed, separated, or divorced. A larger number of Negro than white women were married. The 92 day workers all reported their age and marital status: 58 were under 40 years and only 11 over 50; 28 percent were single, 41 percent married, and 30 percent widowed, separated, or divorced.

#### SCHOOLING, SPECIAL TRAINING, AND EXPERIENCE

All workers and their labor should be considered in relation to their education, vocational training, and experience. Of the 494 regular employees, 489 reported on their schooling; few had spent more than 8 years in school, the average for the group being 8.4 years. Cooks and children's nurses had an average of 9 and 10 years, respectively, while laundresses averaged only 6 years. The 89 day workers answering this question had a similar record. Their average was 8.2 years in school, but those who did cooking and general housework had had greater opportunities, while the laundresses again had the least.

Smaller numbers reported on specialized training. Among the 462 regular employees who gave this information, only 60 had attended household-training school, and among 463 only 154 had had home economics in high school. The record of 87 day workers showed that only 13 had been to household-training schools, and that 34 out of 89 had studied home economics in high school.

Experience, however, is often more important in the making of a good worker than training. Of the 472 regular employees who discussed their experience in household work, 55 had had experience of less than 2 years; 52 had had over 2 but less than 4 years; 180 had been thus employed between 5 and 10 years; and 185 had had over 10 years' experience. Thus, the majority of the women here discussed

were established household employees, in the sense that they were not new at the job.

Many of these women had also had experience in other types of labor which in some cases could well increase their skill at household occupations. Of the 390 regular employees who gave information on this point, 30 had worked in factories, 92 in hotels, restaurants, and boarding houses, 21 as clerks, 58 as nurses, and 61 in miscellaneous jobs. The remaining 128 (32 percent) stated that domestic work had been their only employment. The record of 77 day workers indicated that 30 had done no other work; 4 had been employed in factories, 18 in hotels and boarding houses, 3 as clerks, 9 as nurses, 3 in clerical jobs, and 10 in miscellaneous ways.

#### METHODS OF OBTAINING WORK

There is no standardized method for the placement of domestic workers in Washington. Most women have tried all channels of finding work during the course of their experience. Many here reporting secured their present jobs by ways different from their usual practice. Over two-fifths of the 473 reporting usually found work through a friend, the grapevine method well known to many perplexed employers. Among the remaining 57 percent, 23 percent of the total number claimed the general use of a public employment agency and 12 percent the use of a private agency.<sup>4</sup> Much smaller percentages obtained work through former employers, through advertising, and through the Domestic Workers' Union.<sup>5</sup>

TABLE 2.—*Domestic Workers' Methods of Obtaining Job, by Type of Work*

Type of work	Total reporting		Job obtained through—						
	Number	Percent	Public agency	Private agency	Self-advertising	Answering advertisement	Friend	Former employer	Other
All types of work	473	100.0	109	58	35	15	204	39	13
Percent	100		23.1	12.3	7.4	3.2	43.1	8.2	2.7
General housework—									
With cooking	363	76.8	83	48	26	13	147	36	10
No cooking	32	6.8	10	3	3	1	18	1	
Cook	16	3.4	2	3	2	1	8		
Cleaner	12	2.5	2	1	2		7		
Laundress	4	.8					4		
Nursemaid	21	4.4	7	1	1	1	9		2
Cleaner and laundress	18	3.8	4	1	1		9	2	1
Other	7	1.5	1	4			2		

<sup>4</sup> This figure is probably high because many of the women interviewed were approached through employment agencies.

<sup>5</sup> The Domestic Workers' Union in Washington is a small group of Negro workers in process of organization.

## *Working Conditions*

### **THE EMPLOYER AND HER HOUSEHOLD**

The employers of these workers represented the low, middle-class, and high-income levels of American life and many types of Washington's residents. Their occupations were reported by 90 percent of the regular employees and 5 percent of the day workers. Government officials and employees naturally constituted the largest number of householders in Washington. Of 449 employers, 32 percent were members of the military or civil services; 19 percent were doctors, lawyers, ministers, or teachers; 10 percent were business executives; 30 percent were mechanics, clerks, salesmen, etc.; and 9 percent were unemployed or retired. There was no significant distribution of either white or Negro workers among any group or groups of employers.

The variety in the dwelling facilities was great. Every type was represented, from one room without a bath to the great elaborate mansions of the capital. As bathrooms and enclosed porches add much to the labor required of domestic employees, they are specifically noted here. Seventy percent of 479 women worked in houses of six or more rooms and 21 percent in homes having at least nine rooms, several baths, and (in 59 cases) one or more enclosed porches. Eighteen percent worked in dwellings of four or five rooms. One-, two-, or three-room households were reported by only 12 percent of these employees. The median house consisted of six rooms with one bath and one enclosed porch.<sup>6</sup>

The families living in these homes were small. In 30 percent of the 479 households discussed, the family consisted of 3 people, including 1 child. This was the median household. Almost half of these employers had no children. About 20 percent of the households had two children and only 3 percent had four or more.

The size of the family, however, had no consistent relation either to the size of the house or to the number of domestic employees. Thus 22 families of 2 persons each lived in homes of 9 or more rooms, while 20 families of 3 people had dwellings of only 3 rooms. Likewise, 235 homes where the families ranged from 1 to at least 7 persons employed 1 full-time worker, and 61 households varying from 1 to 6 people depended on 1 part-time employee. Again, 5 families, comprising from 1 to 7 members, employed 4 full-time and 1 part-time workers. The largest staff consisted of 5 full-time and 2 part-time employees.

<sup>6</sup> The overweighting of this survey with full-time employees explains this large median house. People living in small apartments are likely to employ part-time workers.

## HOURS OF WORK

No other phase of domestic work is so onerous as the long hours it entails. The demands of official and social life in Washington households make the days of domestic employees often excessively long. Because more white women are employed in the larger homes, and because more white women are resident employees, the schedules of the white women here recorded are more often excessive than are those of the Negroes; that is, a larger percentage of them worked more than 10 hours per day. Among the 55 full-time white workers who gave information regarding their daily programs, only 26 percent were on duty for less than 12 hours each day, while 31 percent worked between 12 and 13 hours, 29 percent between 13 and 14 hours, and 14 percent over 14 hours per day. The median day consisted of 12 hours and 50 minutes.

Free time and time on call (which means time when no definite work is assigned but when the employee is expected to be on hand to answer bells, take messages, etc.) were both rare. One-fourth of the 55 women had from 1 to 2 hours of free time, some daily and some occasionally. Less than a third had time on call. This was given in periods which ranged from 2 hours daily to 5 hours on some days.

The schedules of the 292 full-time Negro workers who reported their daily hours showed equal but different variations. Here 34 percent worked under 11 hours each day, 29 percent between 11 and 12 hours, 27 percent between 12 and 13 hours, and 10 percent over 13 hours. The median daily program was 11 hours and 33 minutes.

The Negro workers also had little free time and time on call. Eighty percent of the women had no free time at all and about the same percentage had no time on call. Both periods of relative leisure, when given, were irregular in amount and occurrence.

The weekly schedule for full-time white workers ranged from 53 to 96 hours; and for full-time Negro workers from 42 to 105 hours. The resident employees again had the longest hours. Among the 48 full-time resident white women, 40 worked 70 hours or more per week, while 7 of the 12 who lived out worked between 55 and 60 hours. The experience of the Negroes was similar. More than three-fifths of the resident Negroes worked at least 70 hours per week, while for the 250 who lived out the median week was 64 hours and 10 minutes.

The regular part-time and the day workers, of course, presented more varied schedules. The small number of white women in these groups makes their experience unimportant for a general statement. The great majority of these Negro groups worked less than 40 hours each week. A minority however, carrying several jobs, reported schedules as long as the majority of the full-time employees.

## PROVISION FOR DAYS OFF

Most domestic workers, both part-time and full-time, do receive the equivalent of 1 day off per week, but this time may be granted at indefinite intervals and at the convenience of the employer. Among 360 regular workers only 5 percent reported no time off. Twelve percent were given a half day, 31 percent had two half days, 23 percent had one whole day, and 14 percent had a day and a half or more. The remaining 15 percent had irregular arrangements.

TABLE 3.—*Weekly Hours Worked by Domestic Employees at Present or Last Job, by Employment Status*

Employment status	Number reporting	Percent of employees who worked during the week—				
		Under 40 hours	40, and under 50 hours	50 and under 60 hours	60 and under 70 hours	70 hours and over
All household employees.....	546	26.9	8.8	14.5	24.0	25.8
White workers.....	68	13.2	1.5	16.2	5.9	63.2
Regular workers—						
Full-time, living in.....	48	2.1		8.3	6.2	83.3
Full-time, living out.....	12	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Part-time.....	3	(1)				(1)
Day workers.....	5	(1)				(1)
Negro workers.....	478	28.9	9.8	14.2	26.6	20.5
Regular workers—						
Full-time, living in.....	50		2.0	8.0	28.0	62.0
Full-time, living out.....	250	2.0	6.8	23.2	43.6	24.4
Part-time.....	103	81.6	14.6	1.0	1.0	1.9
Day workers.....	75	65.3	18.7	6.7	4.0	5.3

<sup>1</sup> Percent not shown; base too small.

## ACCOMMODATIONS FOR RESIDENT WORKERS

Although resident workers had lower living expenses and although higher wages were not paid to workers living out, 88 percent of 367 women preferred to live out. The contented members of the 108 resident employees here recorded were generally the well-paid white women who had comfortable living quarters and some provision for social life. The poor quarters allotted to resident Negro workers in Washington, rooms usually in damp basements or poorly heated and poorly ventilated attics, often with inadequate sanitary arrangements, such as outdoor toilets, make most Negroes reluctant to accept resident employment. The fact that a larger percentage of Negro workers are married also makes them prefer to live in their own homes. The living quarters of resident workers here reported were of unusually high standards. Ninety-five of the 108 women had private rooms, 2 white women shared their rooms with another employee, and 7 white women and 4 Negroes shared their rooms with a member of their employer's family. Private baths were provided for 16 white and 37 Negro residents; 35 whites and 16 Negroes had the use of the family

bath or shower. Among 99 reporting on a place (other than the kitchen) in which to entertain their friends, 26 white workers and 23 Negroes had this privilege.

### *Earnings of Domestic Workers*

#### PAY PERIODS FOR DOMESTIC WORK

The great majority of employers in Washington were found to pay their domestic workers by the week. The records of 493 regular employees show that 81 percent were paid by the week, 11 percent by the month, 4 percent by the day, 3 percent by the hour, and 1 percent by the job. Cleaners and laundresses usually received their wages by the hour, day, or job. Among 91 day workers, 45 percent were paid by the hour, 39 percent by the day, 14 percent by the week, and 2 percent by the job.

#### WEEKLY EARNINGS

The low wages of household employees are another major grievance. The median weekly cash wage for 564 women was \$8.10. The wage figure becomes more significant, however, when considered in relation to the type of worker. For full-time resident employees wages ranged from \$3.50 to \$18.75 per week. The median for white women was \$9.35 and for Negro women \$8.85. No extra amount was paid to workers who live out. For this and the remaining groups the figures are for Negroes only, as the number of white workers was too small to be significant. The median weekly earnings amounted to \$8.75 for full-time nonresident Negro workers, \$6.35 for part-time workers, and \$7.60 for day workers. In all groups the range extended from under \$5 to over \$14, but almost a fourth of the part-time employees and of the day workers received less than \$5 weekly.

TABLE 4.—Week's Cash Wages of Domestic Employees, by Employment Status and Race

Employment status and race	Total reporting	Percent of employees whose week's wages were—										
		Median week's wages	Under \$5	\$5 and under \$6	\$6 and under \$7	\$7 and under \$8	\$8 and under \$9	\$9 and under \$10	\$10 and under \$11	\$11 and under \$12	\$12 and under \$14	\$14 and over
All employees.....	564	\$8.10	9.9	9.8	13.1	15.4	16.0	7.1	14.0	5.7	6.7	2.3
White workers.....	70	8.20	11.4	12.9	12.9	10.0	12.9	4.3	11.4	5.7	10.0	8.5
Regular workers—												
Full-time, living in.....	50	9.35	4.0	16.0	12.0	6.0	10.0	6.0	12.0	8.0	14.0	12.0
Full-time, living out.....	12	(1)										
Part-time.....	3	(1)										
Day workers.....	5	(1)										
Negro workers.....	494	8.10	9.7	9.3	13.1	16.2	16.4	7.5	14.4	5.7	6.3	1.4
Regular workers—												
Full-time, living in.....	55	8.85	---	10.9	12.7	12.7	16.4	9.1	18.2	12.7	5.5	1.8
Full-time, living out.....	256	8.75	1.6	5.1	11.7	16.0	20.7	10.9	19.5	5.9	7.8	.8
Part-time.....	104	6.35	24.0	19.2	19.2	22.1	10.6	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.9	1.0
Day workers.....	79	7.60	24.1	8.9	10.1	11.4	10.1	3.8	12.6	7.6	7.6	3.8

<sup>1</sup> Median not shown; base too small.

**WAGES IN RELATION TO HOURS AND NATURE OF WORK**

Wages showed no consistent relation to hours of work. Women holding full-time jobs demanding over 80 hours per week were represented in every stage of the wage scale, receiving from \$3.50 to \$18.75. Compensation for part-time and day work was equally unstandardized on the basis of hours.

Wages in relation to the specialized work of the employee showed slight variation. Cooks were the highest-paid workers. The earnings of 14 full-time cooks averaged \$10.21 per week. Children's nursemaids followed, the average weekly wage of 12 being \$8.83. General housework with cooking came next, with \$8.66 the average weekly wage for 299 employees of this type. General housework without cooking was less profitable, the average weekly compensation for 28 workers being \$7.50.

The wages of part-time employees of the same categories followed the same pattern. Cleaners and laundresses were the most poorly paid among the part-time people. Twelve cleaners averaged \$3.75 for a 17½-hour week. Twelve women who combined laundry with cleaning were paid an average of \$4.08 for 18.3 working hours.

**WAGES IN RELATION TO TYPE OF HOUSEHOLD**

The varied types of households here represented seem deceptively uniform when averages are made of the number of the rooms in their dwellings, the number in the families, and the number of their employees. Such averages, however, when related to the wages paid by the households concerned, show that the extent of the household has little consistent bearing on the amount of the wages paid. Thus, 8 full-time regular employees worked in homes which averaged 4.1 persons in the family and 5.7 rooms in the dwelling, and which employed an average of 1 other person, for a wage of less than \$5 per week. Over 200 similar households, averaging 3.8 persons, 6.2 rooms, and 1.3 additional employees, paid their full-time regular employees a weekly wage of between \$5 and \$10. Again, over 100 employers with homes averaging 4 people, 7.4 rooms, and 1.9 additional workers, paid regular full-time employees between \$10 and \$15 per week. The households paying the highest wages differed only slightly, owing to smaller families and larger operating staffs, from those paying the lowest. Seven employers offering wages of between \$15 and \$20 per week for full-time regular work had homes averaging 3 persons, 7.9 rooms, and 3.9 additional employees.

**WAGES IN RELATION TO LENGTH OF SERVICE**

The rapid turn-over of domestic workers in jobs is generally recognized. There is little evidence, however, that their wages advance or

would advance at intervals if they served a given employer with increasing skill over a long period of time. Among 470 regular employees here recorded, 234 had worked for their present employer for less than a year, 88 for less than 2 years, 30 over 5 years, and only 24 for 10 years or over. The median period for 67 white women was less than a year; for 403 Negroes, 1 year, 8 months, and 2 weeks.

Of the 223 workers holding their present job for less than a year and reporting wages, 19 received less than \$5 per week, 163 received between \$5 and \$10, 39 received between \$10 and \$15, and 2 were paid between \$15 and \$20 per week. The story of those who had worked for the same employer between 5 and 10 years was similar. One of these 30 women was still receiving under \$5 weekly, 10 were receiving between \$5 and \$10, 18 were paid between \$10 and \$15, and 1 received between \$15 and \$19 per week. Among the 22 women employed for 10 years or more in one place, all of whom were Negroes, 2 received under \$5 weekly, 8 between \$5 and \$10, and 12 between \$10 and \$15 per week. Although a higher percentage of those employed in one place for long periods of time received higher wages than those working for brief periods, it cannot be concluded that wages increase with length of satisfactory service.

#### **WAGES IN RELATION TO GENERAL EDUCATION**

There is some evidence that women with trained minds who enter domestic work command higher wages than those with very limited schooling, but there are many exceptions to such a rule. While more women with some higher education were in the high-wage groups, women who had completed only the sixth grade were found receiving from \$12 to over \$16 per week and two women with no schooling were earning between \$8 and \$9 and between \$12 and \$13 weekly, respectively. On the other hand, there were 15 workers with more than high-school experience earning from under \$5 to \$8 per week.

Looking at the question from the point of view of the training here represented in the different wage groups, the results as regards the regular employees were as follows. Among the 35 workers receiving under \$5 per week, 60 percent had had either no schooling or only grammar-school training, 37 percent had been in high school, and 3 percent had had some higher education. The education of the 304 women receiving between \$5 and \$10 weekly showed a similar range. Here 53 percent had had either no schooling or grammar-school experience, 41 percent had been in high school, and 6 percent had had higher education. In the \$10 to \$15 weekly wage group, 51 percent of the 129 had had either no schooling or grammar-school training, 44 percent had been in high school, and 5 percent had had higher education. The 7 women paid top wages, \$15 to \$20 weekly, were

also of unequal education. Fifty-seven percent had had grammar-school experience, 28 percent had been in high school, and 14 percent had had higher education.

The education in relation to the wages of the 83 day workers showed less variation. Among 20 women earning less than \$5 weekly, 45 percent had been to grammar school, and 55 percent to high school. In the \$5 to \$10 wage group, there were 38 women, 59 percent of whom reported grammar-school experience, 32 percent had been to high school, and 9 percent had had higher study. Among the 24 who received from \$10 to \$15 per week, 43 percent had been to grammar school, 44 percent had been in high school, and 13 percent had had some higher education. The 1-day worker who earned more than \$15 weekly had not gone beyond grammar school.

#### WAGES IN RELATION TO TRAINING FOR DOMESTIC SERVICE

Domestic workers with special training for their jobs received no higher wages than those without it. About a third of the women in each wage group from under \$5 to between \$10 and \$15 per week had had courses in home economics in high school, and between 11 and 14 percent of the women in the same groups had attended household training schools. Of course, the quality and extent of the training could not be determined, but whatever it may have been, there had been no monetary reward for it.

It may therefore be concluded that the wages of household workers are determined by forces largely beyond the control of the workers themselves. Hours of work, nature of household, length of service, general education, and special training have in no way standardized the amount paid for the varied services of domestic employees. Their wages depend upon individual equations—the extent of the need of the worker for a job and the need of the employer for help and his capacity to pay at any given moment.

#### ANNUAL INCOMES FROM DOMESTIC WORK, 1939

Because of the irregular employment of domestic workers in Washington during 1939, a study of the annual incomes gained through such employment presents a gloomy picture. Seasonal unemployment owing to the closing of homes for the summer is one of the reasons why 14 percent of 576 employees had no work during the hot weather. Lack of skills, lack of interest in the work, and unwillingness to meet the unreasonable requirements of many employers, explain in part the long periods of unemployment recorded by the 427 employees who also gave their annual earnings in 1939 from household work. Less than half of these women had had work for 52 weeks. About a fifth had

had domestic employment for less than 28 weeks, some of these for as little as 2 weeks.

The range in the annual incomes of those who worked from 48 to 52 weeks does not correspond to the range in weekly wages, because the wages given for a definite week were not always paid regularly and because some individuals worked at different wage rates at different times during the year. The incomes in 1939 for 25 full-time white employees ranged from \$260 to \$900 and for 173 Negroes from \$156 to \$780. The range for part-time and day workers is less significant because of the great diversity of their schedules. For 53 Negro part-time workers, the annual incomes ranged from \$96 to \$728.

The median earnings for the above 427 workers in 1939 were \$350; for those who worked "48 and under 52" weeks, \$470, and for those who worked 52 weeks, \$420.

**TABLE 5.—Year's Earnings of Domestic Employees in 1939, by Number of Weeks Worked in Domestic Employment<sup>1</sup>**

Length of employment	All em- ploy- ment	Percent of employees with specified length of employment, who earned in year—							Percent with specified length of employment	
		Un- der \$100	\$100 and under \$200	\$200 and under \$300	\$300 and under \$400	\$400 and under \$500	\$500 and under \$600	\$600 and over	Negroes	Whites
Under 4 weeks	100.0	7.7							1.4	
4 and under 8 weeks	100.0	21.2							2.2	3.6
8 and under 12 weeks	100.0	15.4	2.0						2.4	
12 and under 16 weeks	100.0	13.5	2.0	1.3					1.6	3.5
16 and under 20 weeks	100.0	15.4	11.7						3.5	1.8
20 and under 24 weeks	100.0	1.9	11.7	5.3					2.4	3.6
24 and under 28 weeks	100.0	3.8	29.4	6.6	1.3				4.6	10.9
28 and under 32 weeks	100.0	3.8	9.8	6.6	2.6	1.3			3.2	5.5
32 and under 36 weeks	100.0	5.8	3.9	5.3	1.3	7.6			3.0	9.1
36 and under 40 weeks	100.0	3.8	3.9	6.6	6.5				3.2	3.6
40 and under 44 weeks	100.0		5.9	18.4	7.8	2.5			2.7	5.9
44 and under 48 weeks	100.0	1.9	2.0	2.6	5.2	7.6			2.7	5.5
48 and under 52 weeks	100.0	1.9	2.0	14.4	14.3	27.8	36.4	32.4	18.0	20.0
52 weeks	100.0	3.8	15.7	32.9	61.0	53.2	63.6	62.2	45.4	23.6
Total	100.0	12.2	11.9	17.8	18.0	18.5	12.9	8.7	100.0	100.0
Number of employees		427	52	51	76	77	79	55	37	55

<sup>1</sup> Median earnings for total employees \$350; for those who worked "48 and under 52" weeks, \$470; "52 weeks," \$420.

#### SUPPLEMENTS TO REGULAR WAGES, AND DEDUCTIONS

*Supplements.*—Supplements to regular wages were not the general policy of Washington employers. Only 35 percent of 170 employers paid or in some way compensated their regular employees for overtime work. Fifty-three percent of the employers of 364 nonresident workers paid their carfare to and from work, and 58 percent of the employers of 89 day workers had this practice. It was true, however, that 70 percent of the women earning less than \$5 per week received payment

for carfare. Tips from guests in the household were mentioned fairly often as a welcome addition to the weekly wage.

Uniforms were furnished to 59 percent of 361 full-time employees, to 37 percent of 98 part-time workers, and to 13 percent of 79 day workers. A still smaller number of employers furnished shoes for their workers. Eight percent of 353 full-time workers, 8 percent of 99 part-time employees, and 3 percent of 78 day workers received their working shoes.

*Deductions from wages.*—Deductions from wages were not frequent. Only 17 out of 456 employers thus penalized their regular employees for tardiness, and 11 out of 76 made it a practice with day workers. Thirteen out of 456 employers charged their regular employees for breakage, and 5 out of 79 exacted this penalty of day workers.

### *Vacations*

Only regular employees could discuss the policy of their employers regarding vacations. Forty-eight percent of the full-time workers and 52 percent of the part-time workers were given annual vacations. Of the total of 470 women answering this question, 48 percent received vacations. A larger percentage of the white women than of the Negro women were granted holidays. More workers among the higher wage groups received vacations than among the poorly paid groups. Thus, in the group receiving less than \$5 per week, 38 percent of the full-time and 32 percent of the part-time workers received a vacation; in the \$5 to \$10 class, 39 percent of the full-time and 57 percent of the part-time workers reported receiving holidays; in the \$10 to \$15 group, 65 percent of the full-time and 75 percent of the part-time workers received vacations; and in the \$15 to \$20 class, 50 percent of the full-time workers were granted holidays.

The length of vacation varied from 1 week to over 2 weeks, and all employers did not pay their employees during the vacation. Thus, among the 225 women receiving vacations only 43 percent received their wages during the period.

### *Medical Care and Insurance for Household Workers*

#### **PHYSICAL EXAMINATIONS AND BLOOD TESTS**

Since the health of a domestic worker is almost as important to her employer as to herself, because in most cases she is handling the food of the employer's family or caring for the children, it would seem that employers might be insistent upon physical examinations for their employees and would make such examinations possible. Such, however, is not the case. Of 479 employers of regular workers, only 57 (12 percent) required physical examinations. Fifteen percent of these

required examinations for white workers and 11 percent for Negro workers. Of the 57 employers insisting upon the examination only 26 percent paid for it. The policy regarding day workers was no broader. Eleven out of 85 employers required their employees to have physical examinations and only 2 paid for them.

Employers who required domestic workers to have a Wasserman test were still less general. Fifty-two out of 494 regular employees had been compelled to have this test and 34 of them had had to pay for it. However, 225 of the regular workers here recorded, 199 of whom were Negroes, had had such tests. Among the 92 day workers 8 had been required to have the Wasserman test and 6 had paid for it themselves. Thirty-three others, 32 of whom were Negroes, had also had this blood examination.

#### MEDICAL CARE

Few employers provide for the medical care of their employees when they are ill. Among 491 household workers only 9 percent received medical care wholly at the expense of their employers and 1 worker reported partial payment by her employer. Ten percent of the full-time workers, 5 percent of the part-time group, and 6 percent of the day workers received free medical care.

Time out for illness means a complete loss of wages for many employees. Twenty-eight percent of 489 employers paid their employees during illness and 6 employers paid them part of their regular earnings. This policy was extended to part-time and day workers as well as to full-time workers. Among the 136 employees receiving this help, 103 were full-time, 22 part-time, and 11 day workers. Among those partly paid by their employers during illness, 5 were full-time workers and 1 was a day worker.

The payment of compensation for accidents to employees is still less a general practice among Washington employers. Among 447 employers only 8 percent made such provision for their workers. Ten percent of the full-time employees, 8 percent of the part-time workers, and 4 percent of the day workers were thus benefited.

#### INSURANCE

The record regarding the payment of employee's insurance by employers was so vague as to be almost useless. Four percent of 478 employers were said to carry insurance for their employees, but the type was not defined. Here, as in the case of medical care and accident compensation, it is probable that many employees had no knowledge of their employer's policy. Many had worked a short time in the household of the employer about whom they were reporting and had had no occasion to know what would happen in the event of their illness or an accident.

### Cost of Living

It was difficult for the workers to estimate their expenditures for basic needs in the short period of the interview. The figures here given are the result of what they could remember and have not the reliability of accounts kept for a given interval. The few items discussed will merely show general tendencies. The reports of the Negroes are more significant than those of the white workers because of their greater number.

Most Negro domestic workers have dependents for whom they are entirely or partially responsible.<sup>7</sup> Those reporting here were seldom able to tell how much of their earnings had to be used for the support of others, but this obligation explains in part the sums spent for rent and the very small amounts devoted to personal use. One worker spoke for many when she said, "I turn over all my wages to my mother to be used, as we all need money." Some sent definite amounts of money every week to parents or children living away from Washington. The obligations of others varied in relation to the uneven earnings of their husbands or other members of the family.

#### RENT COSTS

The average weekly expenditure for rent of the several types of employees here considered is fairly uniform, owing to the fact that all wage levels were represented in each class of workers and also to the scarcity of low-priced housing in Washington. A slightly higher wage would not make possible a better house. It is significant that a third of the Negro and almost an eighth of the white resident employees paid rent. The need for a place to entertain their friends, a place to go when ill, and a home for dependents are some of the given reasons. Such rents, however, were the lowest paid by both races.

TABLE 6.—*Average Weekly Rent Expenditure of Domestic Employees, per Worker, by Employment Status and Race*

Employment status	Total workers	Workers reporting rent		Average weekly rent per worker
		Number	Percent	
All workers.....	578	416	72	\$4.24
White workers.....				
Living in.....	64	18	28	4.87
Living out.....	51	6	12	4.05
Negro workers.....				
Full-time, living in.....	13	12	97	5.28
Full-time, living out.....	514	398	77	4.21
Part-time.....	57	20	35	3.64
Day workers.....	260	228	88	4.10
	110	80	73	3.92
	87	70	80	5.06

<sup>7</sup> Social Security Bulletin, October 1941: Negro Domestic Workers in Private Homes in Baltimore, by Erna Magnus.

The average weekly rent per worker ranged from \$3.64 to \$5.28. Since the average wage ranged from \$6.35 to \$9.35, it must be concluded that about half of the earnings of domestic employees is spent on rent.

#### **FOOD AND CLOTHING**

Figures for the cost of food and clothing of domestic workers are unreliable. Full-time resident workers get three meals a day at the home of their employers except on their days off. Nonresident employees, part-time workers, and day workers receive one, two, or three meals per day, depending upon the hours of their employment. Among 438 employees reporting on meals, 38 percent received three meals a day at the home of their employer.

Most of the workers claimed that large proportions of their clothing were given to them. Their heaviest expenditure was for stockings. Seventy-two percent of the women receiving under \$6 per week spent an average of \$10.11 per year on hosiery and 80 percent of the workers receiving \$11 or more weekly had an average annual expenditure for stockings of \$16.77.

#### **INSURANCE COSTS**

The majority of the women here interviewed carried some type of insurance, life or burial, accident or sickness. Some policies offered a combination of benefits, and some women carried more than one policy. Average weekly expenditures for this security for Negro workers ranged from 23 to 78 cents and for white employees from 25 to 62 cents. Negroes in the lowest weekly wage group paid the highest insurance premiums. A larger number of women in the upper wage levels carried some kind of insurance.

**TABLE 7.—Average Weekly Expenditures for Domestic Workers in Washington, D. C., for Insurance**

Type of insurance	Total workers	Negro workers				White, full-time <sup>1</sup> workers	Total workers	Negro workers				White, full-time <sup>1</sup> workers			
		Full time		Reg- ular, part time	Day work- ers			Full time		Reg- ular, part time	Day work- ers				
		Liv- ing in	Liv- ing out					Liv- ing in	Liv- ing out						
Percent reporting weekly expenditure for insurance							Average weekly expenditure for insurance								
Life.....	57	46	61	67	59	41	46	\$0.48	\$0.40	\$0.45	\$0.47	\$0.54	\$0.62	\$0.46	
Burial.....	8	4	8	12	8	2	—	.39	.23	.38	.43	.48	.25	—	
Accident.....	7	6	8	9	10	—	—	.41	.25	.36	.58	.37	—	—	
Sickness.....	14	16	15	16	20	—	—	.51	.55	.32	.57	.78	—	—	
Combined benefits.....	8	12	13	—	2	—	—	.59	.51	.60	—	.76	—	—	

<sup>1</sup>Averages not presented for 3 white part-time workers and 5 white day workers.

## CHURCH AND OTHER MEMBERSHIP DUES

Membership in group organizations such as churches, clubs, and lodges was a substantial item in the budget of a majority of the employees. Sixty-seven percent of 514 persons made an average annual contribution of \$11.83 to their church. Often the poorer the individual, the larger the gift. Membership in some church societies carried sickness and burial insurance benefits. Lodge dues totaled about as much as church donations. Seventy-five women spent an average of \$11.48 per person annually for lodge membership. These organizations also offered some social benefits. Club memberships were more general than lodge memberships and less costly. Union memberships were negligible.

TABLE 8.—*Average Annual Expenditures of Domestic Workers in Washington, D. C., for Dues in Social Organizations*

Type of organization	Total workers	Negro workers				White, full-time workers	Total workers	Negro workers				White, full-time workers			
		Full time		Reg- ular, part time	Day work- ers			Full time		Reg- ular, part time	Day work- ers				
		Living in	Living out					Living in	Living out						
Percent reporting annual expenditure for dues						Average annual expenditure for dues									
Lodge.....	13	12	16	8	19	4	-----	\$11.62	\$11.83	\$12.04	\$11.50	\$10.53	\$11.50	-----	
Club.....	20	2	2	25	16	20	-----	5.61	3.40	6.83	5.89	5.08	1.64	-----	
Church.....	62	74	70	46	70	39	23	11.55	14.54	11.92	9.98	11.28	12.86	\$3.53	
Union.....	2	4	3	1	2	-----	-----	3.11	3.50	3.07	3.00	3.00	-----	-----	
Other.....	2	4	2	-----	5	2	-----	7.27	8.96	5.63	-----	6.68	2.00	-----	

*Individual Workers*

A presentation of the experience of individual workers may portray more realistically the position and problems of domestic workers. The stories of regular, full-time domestic employees naturally give the more accurate concept of the life which domestic work entails. The part-time worker, however, is such an important factor in the Washington problem that no local picture is complete without her.

The highest-paid employee covered in the study was a white woman of English birth who had lived in the United States 20 years. She had had 15 years' experience in domestic service, 6 years of which were in the job she held at the time of the study. She did the cooking and general housework, the marketing, and the planning of the meals for a family of two, who lived in an 11-room house. The family also employed another full-time worker and a part-time worker. This woman worked 78 hours per week and received \$75 per month. She was given 2 months' annual vacation at half pay. A private

room and bath, and a room in which to entertain her woman friends, was provided for her at the home of her employer. She preferred to be a resident worker. Neither she nor her employer carried insurance for her protection. She paid no rent, but she contributed \$200 a year for the support of members of her family. She spent more than \$125 per year on clothes, but paid no dues for memberships in church, lodge, club, or union.

The best general conditions, however, for both white and Negro women were typified by a single Negro woman 28 years old, a native of South Carolina, who had been in domestic service 9 years and in her present job for 4 years. Her 12 years in school had included a course in home economics, and at the time of this interview she was a student of household arts in a vocational night school. She had also had 3 years' nursing experience. Her work involved the cooking, waiting, and heavy cleaning for a family of two, who lived in a 9-room house and who employed two other full-time workers. Her weekly schedule consisted of 62½ hours, with 2 free hours each day and 2 half days off each week. She received \$15 per week and 7 weeks' vacation with pay. Her annual income from domestic work in 1939 was \$780. Her employer paid for uniforms and some insurance, required no physical examination, and made no deductions for breakage, tardiness, or illness. This employee lived out but did not prefer to do so. She paid \$7 weekly for rent and gave partial support to one member of her family. She spent more than \$100 per year on clothes, \$14.40 for life insurance, and \$16 lodge, club, and church dues.

The more usual type of worker was represented by a Negro woman of 26, a native of South Carolina, with 12 years' experience in domestic work and 18 months in her present job. She had completed the fifth grade in school, had had no training for domestic work, and had had no other work experience. Her work included the cooking, waiting, heavy cleaning, light laundry, and marketing for a family of five adults, who lived in a house of 17 rooms and 4 baths. She was the only employee. Her workweek totaled 79½ hours, and her usual 13½-hour day included 2 hours on call. She had 2 half days free each week and 3 weeks' annual vacation without pay. Her wages were \$8 weekly and carfare to and from work. Her employer paid for uniforms, but made no provision for medical care, payment of wages during illness, or insurance, and did not require a physical examination nor make deductions for breakage or tardiness. This worker had no dependents. She spent \$3 weekly for rent, carried no insurance, and had no memberships in social organizations. Her clothes cost under \$100 yearly, of which \$36 was allotted to stockings.

The lowest working standards here reported were those of white resident employees. Most of the Negroes who were paid \$5 or less

per week lived out, thus avoiding excessive hours of work at night. The experience of a white woman of 58, a native of Washington, with 6 years of schooling, who had been in domestic service 3 years, will give some idea of the hardship which some women endure. This employee did the light cleaning in an apartment of three rooms and bath, and took care of three children day and night for an employer who worked in a 5-and-10-cent store. She worked 90 hours for \$4 per week. She shared a room with the children and used the family bath. No uniforms and no physical examination were required and no deductions were made for illness, breakage, or tardiness. She gave no report regarding her expenditures. Her meager earnings were her only source of income, and she tried to supplement her wages by occasional work at the Washington Self-Help Exchange. She was seeking other work at the time of this interview.

The lot of the part-time and day workers differed even more extremely. Some skilled women carried several jobs per week, which made possible an annual income of \$728 and allowed them relative independence. Some women in order to supplement the family income, held jobs for a few hours per day, which did not monopolize their strength and time. Others, unskilled and poverty stricken, who lived in depressed areas had difficulty finding work and earned pitifully little when they secured jobs.

A typical part-time employee was a married Negro woman 29 years old, who had completed the eighth grade in school and had had no special training for household work. She had worked 21 hours a week for one employer for 4 years. This time was spread over five afternoons each week, when she did the cleaning and light laundry, and prepared and served dinner for four adults who lived in a small apartment. For this she received \$7 per week and an annual vacation of 2 weeks with pay. Her employer also paid her during illness, but did not furnish uniforms, carry accident insurance for her, or pay her carfare to work. She required no physical examination or blood test. This worker gave partial support to one person. Her family rent was \$4.90 weekly. She spent about \$60 annually on clothes, of which \$14 was allotted to stockings. Insurance cost her \$26 per year, church dues \$6, and union dues \$3.

The contrast between day workers can be seen in the reports of two Negro women, 60 and 52 years old respectively, the former a native of New Orleans and the latter of Prince Georges County, Md. Neither had gone beyond the fourth grade in school and neither had studied home economics. Both did cleaning. The former held three regular jobs which together required 22 hours per week. She received 25 cents an hour and carfare. Her annual income in 1939 from these and other similar jobs was \$476. Her employer required both a complete physical examination and a Wassermann test, but did not

pay for them. Neither insurance protection nor vacations were given. She and her husband had no dependents. Their monthly rent was \$14; she was unable to give an account of their other expenses.

The younger woman, had worked for 10 years cleaning Pullman cars before going into domestic service. At the time of the interview, she was working 4 days a month at \$2 a day of 8 hours, doing the cleaning and heavy laundry for two men who lived in a six-room house. This had been her sole job for 3 years, yielding an annual income of only \$96. She walked to work, received neither vacation nor insurance, and her employer deducted from her wages for illness. Her constant efforts to secure more and better work had been in vain. Fortunately, her husband had a good, though seasonal, job. They rented a house at \$30 per month and had no dependents. A life and burial insurance policy, which she had carried for 30 years, cost \$7.80 annually. Her clothes cost less than \$35 per year, of which \$2 was allotted to stockings. Her church was her main interest. Her church dues were \$6 annually, and membership in a church society which provided some social benefits cost \$6.

### *Conclusion*

The facts heretofore shown make it obvious why the majority of domestic employees in Washington are actively discontented with their work and strive to transfer to other occupations whenever possible. Under present conditions there is little to guarantee social security and pride of status in household employment. The complete lack of general standards for hours and wages in relation to the amount and nature of work makes any domestic job an uncertainty. Specific contracts between employer and employee detailing their respective duties and obligations are almost unknown. Unreasonable demands and inconsiderate conduct are characteristic of both parties. The long hours entailed in even the best-paid jobs give the worker scant time for social life and interests outside her work, and often mean a life of great loneliness. Household employment carries with it no provision for social security, and the relatively low wages make adequate savings impossible. These disadvantages apply to white and colored employees alike. Although there are more Negroes than white women in domestic work in Washington (because white women in this city can usually find other employment), the problems of domestic service are not problems of race.

The nature of domestic work itself should not repel competent, industrious young women. Household employment can be more humanly interesting, more varied, and more creative than the average factory job. A well-organized home offers to its employees more pleasant surroundings and a greater sense of individual responsibility

and importance than the monotonous tasks of industry. Women working in such homes at good wages and on considerate schedules take pride in their work and many claim to prefer it to all other occupations. The problem is one of making these good standards general, of increasing the minority of contented domestic workers into a stable, well-satisfied majority.

This goal could be attained if the need for domestic workers in the homes of the very poor were eliminated. The problem of the under-paid drudge in households where, for instance, a widowed mother or both parents have to work all day, leaving the care of the children and all the household chores to someone to whom they cannot afford to pay a subsistence wage, is one of the problems of poverty. The poor and helpless are forced to exploit the still poorer and more helpless. One solution in these cases is State assistance through a sufficient number of day nurseries, visiting nurses, and provision for the care of the aged and the infirm.

The homes of the middle classes and the wealthy will always want household workers, notwithstanding the increasing mechanization of housework. Their work should be recognized because of its importance and the skills required. These skills are arts and should be respected as such. The belief that any woman can do domestic work is erroneous.

Both trained workers and trained employers are essential to give domestic service the standing it deserves. Such training is difficult to establish in the midst of the continuous need for household services. A few methods, however, may be suggested. Community schools using public and private facilities could be developed to train domestic workers which would grant diplomas, the possession of which would give confidence to the worker and ensure acceptable work to the employer. Wages could be graded in proportion to the skills of the employee. Local boards of home economists, household employers, and workers might establish standards for wages and hours. They could also formulate minimum requirements for the living conditions of resident employees. Such boards might further create advisory councils where employers could receive help regarding household administration and employer-employee relationships. Through such means household employment might become a generally respected vocation which would attract and satisfy the many women who are needed in this work.

## INDUSTRIAL AND RURAL WORKERS ON FSA HOMESTEADS<sup>1</sup>

### *Summary*

THE farm security program provides assistance for low-income workers in both industry and agriculture, to help them to improve both their employment and their living conditions. The broadest and most important part of the program is a system of loans and supervision to enable rural families to rehabilitate themselves economically. Nearly a million families had received these loans up to June 30, 1941. Able and ambitious tenants and laborers are also enabled to purchase their own land and thus advance to the owner class. Also important, but of much less numerical coverage, is the homestead program, providing land and buildings where industrial and farm families may get a new start. A system of camps provides temporary housing facilities for migrant farm families.

Along with all of these goes continuous supervision, advice, and training in sound farm and home management methods; sponsorship in obtaining medical care at prices the families can afford; assistance in techniques of cooperative effort in purchasing of supplies, marketing of products, and obtaining various services which are out of the financial reach of individual families.

The most recent features of the program are efforts in relocating families dispossessed by expanding defense needs and defense industries and in providing living quarters for workers in defense industries.

The homesteads, with which this article deals, form one of the most interesting and well-rounded phases of the entire FSA program. These homesteads are of a variety of types, including subsistence homesteads, rural communities, scattered farms, and greenbelt towns. The first two classes are mainly for industrial workers, low-salaried business employees, and rural workers. In them the homesteads are grouped into self-contained colonies, each with its own community center. Each subsistence homestead is provided with land sufficient to enable the family to raise part of its food; the rest of the living comes from part-time work in industry or in agriculture. At the end of June 1941 the Farm Security Administration had under its supervision 3 greenbelt towns and 178 other homestead projects. Of the 30 subsistence homesteads, 6 were designed especially for industrial workers in natural-resources industries which had been worked out. There were also 73 rural communities and 75 scattered-farms projects.

<sup>1</sup> Second of a series of three articles. For the first article, describing the whole FSA program, see *Monthly Labor Review*, December 1941.

In these communities the program attacks four of the problems that may beset not only the small farmer but the low-income industrial worker, namely insecurity of tenure, poor living conditions, overwhelming debt, and poor health. For the small farmer there is also a fifth: competition from the large mechanized farms.

The homestead program is not by any means a mass attack on the problems of tenancy or bad rural conditions, for fewer than 20,000 families have been affected. It involves, rather, the use of the laboratory method to determine the relative effectiveness of various methods, and the utilization of what has been termed "competitive competition" to spread the effectiveness of the methods. As one writer has said, the projects "effectively utilize for progressive ends the ingrained American impulse 'to keep up with the Joneses'. \* \* \* More basically, the projects will demonstrate whether or not scientific farming methods on small farms under a relatively rational tenure system can be made to pay out."<sup>2</sup>

### *Life in a Homestead Community*

Although details vary considerably from project to project, the general procedure and situation of the homesteads is as described in the following pages.

#### BASIS OF SELECTION OF HOMESTEADERS

The general requirements governing the choice of the families that are to participate in a homestead project are good character, need, and willingness to cooperate. Occasionally, however, a settler is selected not so much for his own good as because he will be an example and help to the others.

Persons participating in homestead projects must be married men with children. They must possess a certain minimum of furniture and personal belongings. In the case of the subsistence homesteads, where farming is on only a part-time basis, there may also be certain cash-income requirements.

The homesteaders selected are generally men in their best working years—the late twenties, the thirties, or early forties—but sometimes a family considerably older is admitted. Thus, at Skyline Farms (Alabama) one homesteader was 80 years of age at the time he was accepted, and in the Prairie Farms project in the same State almost all of the heads of the families were over 50. At the other end of the scale was a young husband at Skyline Farms who was only 17. At Wabash Farms (Indiana) all the settlers were men in their twenties.

Only citizens are accepted into the projects, but they are of varied national stock—whatever nationalities are living in the region of the

<sup>2</sup> Survey Graphic, June 1939: Homesteaders—New Style, by Charles R. Walker.

homestead experiment. In the South and Southwest, for example, the homesteaders are mainly either native whites or Negroes. At Pembroke Farms (North Carolina) all are Croatan Indians, reputed to be descendants of native tribes which intermarried with the white remnants of Raleigh's "Lost Colony" in the sixteenth century. At Granger Homesteads (Iowa), where the settlers work part time in the mines, there is a variety of nationalities—Italian, Croatian, and mixed nationalities, as well as many of native American stock.

The employment records and agricultural experience of the applicants are carefully examined. Usually some experience in agriculture is required. Such is not always the case, however. Exceptions include the projects for stranded industrial groups and some of the part-time farmsteads. Thus, at Pine Mountain Valley (Georgia) 27 percent of the participants had never lived on a farm and 11 percent had lived there only briefly. Again, most of the families on the Camelback tract of Arizona Part-Time Farms came, not from an agricultural background, but from low-paid industrial work or white-collar jobs in and around Phoenix.

The above cases are rather exceptional. Although it often happens that the husbands have had a varied occupational experience, agriculture is almost always included, and large proportions of the families are of the sharecropper and tenant class. None of the families in the Skyline Farms project, for instance, had had less than 5 years' experience in farming, but most of the husbands had done other work—lumbering, mining, milling, well drilling, truck driving, and unskilled labor. Most of them had lived in the mountains for generations. The homesteaders on the Casa Grande (Arizona) project were selected from among the homeless, migrant farm families. Many of them had previously been farm owners and operators who had lost their land.

There are always many more applications than there are homesteads, and thus a considerable degree of selection is possible. In certain projects, however, some or all of the families which had been living on the land that was purchased for the project were admitted to participation. The purpose in these cases was to find out "whether these run-of-the-mill sharecroppers could make a decent, secure living if they had a chance under different conditions."

On several of the Negro, or part-Negro, projects some or all of the settlers were unselected families already on the site; this was the case at Gee's Bend (southern Alabama) and Flint River Farms (Georgia). At LaForge Farms (southeastern Missouri) the whole group of 60 white and 40 Negro families was already living on the land.

## HOMESTEAD FACILITIES

The size of the homestead to which the family moves depends on whether only part-time or subsistence farming is to be done (supplemented by income from some paid employment) or whether farming is to be done on a commercial scale large enough to furnish full family support. If the latter, the area will also vary according to the particular crops to be planted or the specific use to be made of the land. Thus, for grazing, a considerably larger area would be necessary (especially where the grass cover is thin) than would be required for many truck crops that could be cultivated intensively.

The use to be made of the land and the specific crops to be planted, as well as their rotation, all form part of the plan formulated for the family and to which it must conform. It is sometimes difficult, however, to convince an individual settler of the wisdom of crop selection and rotation, until he sees from his own experience what improvements can be made in this way.

With each homestead site are supplied a house and the necessary outbuildings, these varying according to the particular activities that will be carried on. Generally these include some or all of the following: Barn, stable, poultry house, pigpen, vegetable-storage shed, and smokehouse. Work animals, poultry, and other livestock are also included.

The dwellings are unpretentious but comfortable and possessed of necessary conveniences. Nearly all of the rural houses are of frame construction. In the South the inside walls are usually of vertical tongue-and-groove sheathing; in the North, of plaster. Northern houses also have insulated ceilings and weatherboard exterior walls, because of the more severe weather conditions. Adobe was used in some of the projects in the Southwest. At Jersey Homesteads concrete and cinder-block construction was used. A variety of materials was used at Arthurdale; thus, one group of houses was built of frame, prefabricated material, a second of frame and concrete blocks, and a third of stone veneer over frame. At Cumberland Homesteads (Tennessee) a native stone was used.

Most of the houses have either front or rear porches. Some are equipped with bathrooms and modern plumbing throughout, whereas others have sanitary outside privies. All, however, have large workable kitchens, and coal or wood kitchen ranges.

Where a large tract of land was purchased, it often happened that erecting new dwellings was more economical than repairing existing ones. For this reason most of the homestead dwellings and other buildings are new.

**COST AND METHODS OF CONSTRUCTION**

Since the beginning of the program construction costs have been successively reduced. The highest unit costs were at the first project undertaken—Arthurdale, W. Va. There the average cost of a dwelling unit (land, house, outbuildings, land improvement, sewer and water systems, and overhead) was \$8,665. However, it is stated that—a large part of the expense \* \* \* can be charged to the relief and rehabilitation aspects of the community. For a considerable period of time, development work was the only means of livelihood available for a great many of the families. A large amount of unskilled labor was used. Moreover, as Arthurdale was the first community of its kind to be developed, it carried a disproportionately large share of planning and general-development costs necessary to the formation of these communities. \* \* \* Lower costs would also have been possible if the Government had left the development of the schools and other community facilities to the local governments and the residents of the locality.

The methods of construction used have varied from time to time, according to what aspect of the program appeared particularly important at the time. Thus, in the early days of the program, when the depression was at its worst, methods were used which would permit the use of unskilled labor and would therefore make possible the employment of the homesteaders themselves. At this stage furnishing employment, rather than the lowest building costs, was the criterion. This, however, resulted in unusually high costs per dwelling.

Later, the construction engineers worked out a system of precutting and prefabrication on a mass-production basis which made it possible to build sturdy homes for as little as \$250 a room. Every unnecessary feature, as well as those which were purely decorative, was eliminated. Standard materials and sizes were used throughout. A portable sawmill at the site cut the lumber, made door and window frames, and even forms for pouring concrete foundations. Under this system unskilled relief labor could still be used, but the cost was reduced considerably. Wherever it was possible to do so, the labor of the persons who were going to live in the houses was used to build them.

The cost of the entire homestead (including land, house, outbuildings, and utilities) has ranged from nearly \$9,000 to less than \$3,000.

House costs alone have swung in a narrower range. Thus, at Truman Farms (Arkansas) a 4-room house averaged only \$1,270, and at Casa Grande (Arizona) \$2,713. At LaForge Farms (Missouri) the average cost of a 4-room house was reduced to \$1,100, "believed to be the lowest cost at which comparable houses have ever been built in this country."

**RENTALS, AND PURCHASE TENURE**

Tenure may be on either a rental or purchase basis. Generally, the homesteader is given a lease when he takes possession of his new

dwelling. If and when he proves his ability to run his place efficiently—ordinarily within a period of 3 to 5 years—he is usually given the opportunity to buy it.

A settler who qualifies for the purchase of his home may buy it over a 40-year term. Purchase may be either directly from the Government or from the community association. Monthly payments vary, of course, according to the total cost. At Prairie Farms (Alabama), for instance, the homesteader pays a yearly average of \$145.97 (covering rent, amortization of principal of rehabilitation loan, and a deposit on the purchase price of the homestead) plus \$18.49 in taxes and insurance. The monthly payment thus averages \$13.70. At Longview (Washington) the monthly payment (all costs) averages \$17.55 on a homestead costing about \$2,915.

Rents vary with type, size of dwelling, and the families' ability to pay. At the Chandler section of Arizona Part-Time Farms the rent for an apartment of 4 rooms and bath averages \$9 per month; in the Camelback section the rents range from \$20 to \$23 per month for 4-and 5-room stuccoed adobe houses. At Casa Grande (Arizona) the rents are \$10, \$12, or \$14 per month for houses with 1 to 3 bedrooms, screened porch, modern plumbing, electricity, and rock-wool insulation. At Irwinville (Georgia) the average rent is \$140 a year for a typical farm unit of frame house with porch, barn, smokehouse, poultry house, and land. The subsistence homesteads at Granger (Iowa) rent for from \$13.96 to \$18.50 per month for a house with modern plumbing and equipped with hot-air furnace and hot-water heater. At Arthurdale the subsistence units range in rent from \$8 to \$11 per month.

#### SOURCES OF CASH INCOME OF FAMILIES

In the great majority of cases farming (either individually or jointly on a cooperative farm) forms the source of livelihood.

A homesteader on an individual farm is an independent entrepreneur, running his farm (though, necessarily, according to the pre-determined plan), harvesting his crops, and receiving the proceeds of their sale.

In some of the projects where there are individual farms there may also be a community farm worked for the benefit of the whole group. At some other developments the whole tract (aside from the space set aside for kitchen gardens) is worked cooperatively as one big farm. All or part of the land at the Lake Dick (Arkansas), Flint River (Georgia), and Osage (Missouri) projects is worked on this basis.

On the cooperative farms, no homesteader works on his individual account. The whole working group is divided into sections and each man is assigned where he can work most efficiently. The family heads

work on a day-wage basis, at the prevailing local rates. When the crops are sold and a settlement is made, the members vote as to the disposal of the earnings. Amounts are set aside for taxes, insurance, depreciation, and repayment of the capital loan; also, a certain amount is retained to finance the next year's operations. Any amount remaining may then be divided among the working families, prorated according to the days' work done by each, or the members may decide to use it for expansion of existing facilities or acquisition of new ones.

The cooperative type of farm has been resorted to in areas where large-scale farming so predominates that the small farmer is at an extreme disadvantage. By adopting the cooperative method, economies in number of animals and buildings are possible, as well as a greatly increased use of machinery.

At Flint River Farms, which is a combination of individual and joint enterprise, it has been found that through selection and variation of crops it has been possible to "lower the labor peaks and fill in the low spots, so as to provide more than twice as much labor for the residents as they are able to find when working as harvest hands and day laborers on neighboring plantations. \* \* \* At the same time, because of the coordination between the crop program and the labor supply, enough time is left free for the individuals to take care of their family animals and their own gardens through the growing season."

Even in projects for industrial workers, work with the soil, even though it may be only in a kitchen garden, is depended upon for at least a part of the family subsistence. It sometimes happens also, that gardens that were at first only of subsistence size gradually became a source of cash income as well. Thus, at Granger Homesteads the settlers are coal miners whose work is seasonal, slackening off in April and becoming active again in September; the slack season therefore dovetails neatly with the gardening season. The homesteads have helped to increase the family income considerably. Even during the drought that occurred the first year, the gardens increased the average family income by \$69. Each succeeding year the extent of the gardening was widened. Then a cooperative association was formed, interest in which stimulated agricultural production beyond subsistence needs. During its first year of operation, seed, fertilizer, and feed were bought cooperatively through the association. Later, surpluses of garden produce were pooled, pressure cookers were obtained, and the vegetables were canned. So good was the resulting product that it found a ready sale in Des Moines at premium prices. The proceeds were sufficient to pay market price for all the produce the members had furnished, plus 15 cents an hour for the canning work done. Encouraged by this, the women obtained small individual

loans which they pooled, buying out the equipment of a closed cannery whose operation they have continued ever since.

At Skyline Farms hogs and poultry have been developed as a source of cash income as well as of food. A sirup plant started there has encouraged the growing of cane and the product (produced by a new method) commands a good price.

Other sources of supplemental income have been found in other homesteads. Thus, on one project the women undertook the production and curing of medicinal herbs. Although at first not on a sufficient scale for commercial sale to drug companies, the beds are to be increased to commercial size.

Weaving of home furnishings, articles of clothing, etc., both for the families' own use and for sale, has been done in several projects.

#### *Paid Industrial Employment*

Many of the subsistence-homestead projects are near industrial centers where full-time or part-time work can be found at least during part of the year. Community projects where only part-time farming is done are generally situated in a district where the settlers—former sharecroppers or farm laborers—can get work on the large local farms outside the project.

In some cases at least part-time industrial employment in the lines for which the settlers were trained was available in nearby towns. Thus, one subsistence-homestead project was undertaken to provide housing and part-time gardening for a group of low-income workers in a local seasonally operated food-packing plant. Three projects (in Kentucky, Mississippi, and Wisconsin) were undertaken as part of a reforestation program. In these there is a combination of part-time farming, grazing, and reforestation work, with supplementary income from forest products. In several other cases paid employment was not necessary, for the participants were retired persons having small means of their own or were pensioners in the fixed-income groups.

The furnishing of employment within the community has, from the first, been one of the most difficult problems. It was planned, at the beginning, to start new industries which would be manned and eventually owned by the colonists. This plan was vetoed by Congress on the ground of competition with established private industry. Several of the projects had been planned and started on the project-industry basis, and therefore in the selection of the site the proximity to sources of paid outside employment had not been a factor. In such cases, and in the stranded-groups projects, the job problem has been particularly acute. In 5 of the 6 stranded-groups projects, the settlers were mainly coal miners and sawmill workers; the sixth was for a group of workers in the needle trades. The settlers were skilled work-

ers in their trades but their industry had disappeared. In any other line of work they were unskilled and would have to be retrained. The results have not been particularly satisfactory. At Arthurdale, W. Va., and Hightstown, N. J., one industry after another has been tried—on both the cooperative and private-lease basis.

The plan now used by FSA is to invite private industries to establish a branch at the project. In such cases a cooperative association is formed by the settlers to which the FSA makes a 40-year loan to provide a building and equipment. The cooperative association and the private company hold shares, in about equal proportions, in an operating corporation created for the purpose of supervising the operation of the plant. Management is supplied by the private company. The cooperative association gives the operating corporation a 45-year lease on the plant, at a specified yearly rental sufficient to cover taxes, maintenance costs, depreciation, insurance, and amortization payments, plus 3 percent interest on the Government loan. Under the contract the workers receive as wages the first 20 percent of any profits that may be made by the plant. The remaining 80 percent of profit is shared between the company and the cooperative association in proportion to their shareholdings in the operating corporation. Of the cooperative's share, however, all but 5 percent must be applied toward payment of the Federal loan until it is all repaid.

At present, hosiery mills are in operation in five projects, a pants factory at a sixth, and a woodworking plant at still another. Some indication of the proportion of homesteaders employed is given in the accompanying table which shows, for each enterprise the number and percent of settlers employed in September 1941 (a typical month), and average per capita earnings in that month.

*Employment and Earnings in Industrial Enterprises at FSA Homestead Projects,  
September 1941*

Project	Kind of plant	Settlers employed		Average earnings per worker in month
		Number	Percent of total families	
Skyline Farms, Scottsboro, Ala.	Hosiery mill	50	27.6	\$84.65
Baz'head Farms, Jasper, Ala.	do	65	65.0	80.55
Penderlea Homesteads, Burgaw, N. C.	do	83	42.6	83.57
Westmoreland Homesteads, Mount Pleasant, Pa.	Pants factory	320	1 125.5	90.75
Cumberland Homesteads, Crossville, Tenn.	Hosiery mill	84	32.1	93.99
Red House, Eleanor, W. Va.	do	97	64.7	88.46
Tygart Valley Homesteads, Dalley, W. Va.	Woodworking plant	171	87.7	97.10

<sup>1</sup> More than 1 employee per family.

Although there is some seasonality, the mills generally operate full time when open. The above earnings therefore represent full-time earnings for the persons employed in September. Since the silk-freezing order of August 2, 1941, the hosiery mills in these projects have, like those elsewhere, been somewhat slowed down by difficulty in obtaining supplies.

At Hightstown the garment factory, run on various plans, failed in all, largely because of inexperienced buying and because of inability to market the product. The factory building is now leased to a private hat manufacturer. No data are available as to earnings.

At Arthurdale, the industrial plant on the project has been leased by a private firm which will employ the homesteaders in the manufacture of furniture and radio cabinets. Portable sound equipment will also be manufactured at Arthurdale. Another new industry at Cumberland Homesteads is a furniture factory. There is a pectin plant at the McAllen project in Texas.

#### "LIVE-AT-HOME" PLAN

Every homestead family must accept and conform to the "live-at-home" program, which generally involves a radical change from previous habits.

It has been the common practice for sharecropper and tenant to plant every foot of soil to cotton or some other cash crop and depend for the family's food on what could be bought at the plantation commissary or other local store. This resulted in the family's complete dependence on the results of the cash crop. If it failed, the family was destitute, being dependent on what local credit it could get—at high rates—or upon relief. The whole situation formed a vicious circle—poor crops, causing a burden of debt, which led to more and more restricted diet, leading to poor health, inability to work at top efficiency, with the result of poor crops again, etc.

It is this situation that the "live-at-home" plan is designed to help. Briefly, it means that a definite part of the homestead land must be planted to vegetables and fruit for the family's own use. Chickens, pigs, and cows (purchased with the FSA loan) add dairy and meat products to the menu. Finally, a minimum of 80 quarts for each family member must be canned for winter use.

What the family needs in milk, eggs, meat, and vegetables is carefully worked out by the home supervisor and the housewife at the beginning of each year. The garden is planted accordingly. Chickens and eggs can be exchanged at the local store for coffee and sugar.

In addition, every plan involving commercial farming carries two other requirements: The development of at least two farm enterprises (crops, livestock, poultry, etc.) that will produce goods for market; and the adoption of methods that will build up the soil.

These requirements attack the three main causes of failure of farm families: Dependence on a single crop, the purchase of the family's food, and the impoverishment of the soil.

Under the FSA plan, even though the cash crop may fail there is food for the family and for livestock. Through the development of several cash crops, the risk of a poor market is lessened. Rotation and variation of crops, the planting of legumes, and terracing result in building up the land which is the homesteader's chief asset.

It is pointed out that the increased production does not lead to increased agricultural surpluses. On the contrary, the live-at-home plan means that a considerable part of the acreage is transferred from the raising of cash crops to the raising of the foods, such as milk, eggs, and vegetables, of which these families have never had an adequate supply.

The part-time, industrial families on the subsistence homesteads benefit from the live-at-home plan as much as do the farm families, for since only part of their livelihood is earned in paid employment, the greater self-sufficiency the family can attain in food from the land the more secure its position.

#### CONTRAST OF PAST WITH PRESENT CONDITIONS

##### *Dietary Habits and Standard of Living*

Contrast of present conditions with those from which many of the families came indicates the remarkable advance in living standards that participation in the program has entailed.

At LaForge Farms, for instance, most of the homesteaders lived previously in one-room shacks with no conveniences whatever. Their living standards were barely above the starvation level. The families were moved into 4- and 5-room frame houses with double floors, built-in cabinets, and screened doors and windows; a sealed well, food-storage vaults, and sanitary privy were also provided. "The fly-infested tables, the piles of dirty bedding next to the stove" became things of the past.

In many cases running water and sanitary conveniences were previously unheard of, as were also screens for windows and doors. In fact, windows themselves were often lacking, the only light and air being obtained through the door.

Another group of homesteaders—migrant laborers—had lived under conditions of "unimaginable squalor." In one case eight families were living in one dilapidated shed with dirt floor, divided by wire-netting partitions into compartments 18 by 24 feet. A "semblance of privacy" was obtained by pinning cardboard and newspapers on the netting. Other families were living in shacks made of flattened tin cans, discarded iron sheeting, odds and ends of boards, etc.

It is evident therefore that in many cases the living quarters on the project represent the first time the family has ever been decently housed.

Never having had conveniences and appliances, the families have to be shown how to use them and care for them. Articles that are commonplace to families of higher income level are new and strange to many of the homesteaders. At one project it was commented that the women, never having had closets—nor, indeed, any surplus clothing or other articles to put in them—had to be shown what they were for.

Having lived for untold years on "corn pone, sow belly, and dried beans," they had to learn to like the new vegetables and fruits that they raised in their gardens. As many as 10 new garden commodities were added to the diets in some cases. Once having acquired the taste, however, and having seen what variety and interest—as well as what dividends in terms of health—could be added to the family table, the women begin to take more and more pride in their culinary achievements. Recipes are exchanged and problems discussed. "Hardly a house is without its pressure cooker" in which to put up canned stuff for the winter. Eventually their shelves yield many more than the required 80 quarts per capita.

Even though the cash income of the family may still not be large, these homesteaders are living well and on a plane well above what most of them had previously experienced. One instance will serve as a case in point: An economist who visited a number of the projects was invited to dinner with a homestead family. The meal consisted of hamburger steak with onions, gravy, hot biscuits, butter, string beans, spinach, plum jelly, salad, baby pickles, preserved peaches, and coffee. "Everything but the coffee, sugar, and salt had come off the place."<sup>3</sup>

From purely utilitarian matters the women advance to the decorative. Ruffled window curtains, potted plants, flower gardens, lawn, and shrubs make their appearance. One reporter noted that: "The women at Roanoke discuss their yards with the competitive enthusiasm of a suburban garden club."

Given a start, the families find latent talents within themselves. They devise ingenious uses for such materials as they have at hand. They try their hands at making household and farm commodities. Thus one group made its own looms. In other cases, hinges for gates and doors have been made from old automobile casings, wagons from the chassis of old cars, furniture and toys from orange crates and other material, and mops and brooms and chair bottoms from cornshucks and brush.

<sup>3</sup> Free America, April 1941: From the Lower Depths, by Stuart Chase.

One client \* \* \* had no water in his house or barn and a nearby spring was unsuitable for piping to the buildings. He dug another spring large enough and of an elevation high enough to furnish an adequate supply. This necessitated digging a ditch approximately 400 feet long and laying the pipe, which he did without assistance of any kind. Not only did he accomplish this but he also successfully installed water in both house and barn. With no experience in plastering, papering or painting, this family renovated three rooms, completely changing the appearance of the place and making it a cheerful, pleasant home in which to live. The effect of these changes has resulted in marked improvement in the family's outlook on life.

In short, these families learn to rely upon themselves, to plan ahead, and to carry out these plans. As one FSA employee put it, "The transition is in itself a process of education for them."

#### *Possibilities for Learning*

It may be said that the whole process of life in a homestead community is one of learning, through both formal and informal methods.

At every step in following out the homestead plan the farmer and his wife receive instruction, advice, and assistance from the Farm Security Administration. Most of the farmers have had no formal instruction in improved farming methods, and at best their experience has been of limited range; indeed, some of them have simply followed their fathers' age-old ways. From the FSA supervisor these small farmers obtain technical help they could get nowhere else, for research in large-scale commercial farming is of little help to them.

They learn the proper rotation of crops, times and methods of planting and harvesting, use of strip and contour planting, use of insecticides, etc. In short, they learn sound farm practice in all its branches. The leasing period of 3-5 years during which they are on trial, as it were, also constitutes a course of training which each homesteader utilizes according to his natural endowments.

In many of the projects special classes are given in a number of practical farm subjects, which the homesteaders may attend; or the farmers may gather informally in little groups (with or without the attendance of the FSA supervisor) to discuss special problems.

While the head of the family is receiving training in farm management, his wife is learning how to make and repair the clothes, use a pressure cooker, can vegetables and fruit, and prepare the family's food in the best ways. A home economist shows her how to prepare balanced diets, do gardening, and make mattresses and small pieces of furniture as well as other items of household use.

#### *Increases in Assets*

One of the most remarkable evidences of the families' new status lies in the increases in their assets. At Flint River Farms (Georgia) the net worth of the families increased from \$78 to \$300 in the first

year. At Irwinville (Georgia) the net worth increased from \$77 to \$778 during the first 3 years. By the end of 1938, the 28 families which had been in the project since 1935, had increased their assets by \$909, or to \$1,258.

When the LaForge Farms (Missouri) project was started in 1937, the entire possessions of the average family—furniture, clothes, farming equipment, livestock, and food in the pantry—averaged only \$28 in December 1937. At the end of 2 years the families, in addition to meeting their loans and obtaining a living by their own efforts, had increased their average gross worth to \$1,474.71 per family.

At Osage (Missouri) the average total income of the families during the crop year 1939-40 was estimated at \$1,142. Of this, \$588 went for farm expense, \$350 for cash expenses of the family, and \$150 on the Government loan, leaving a cash saving of \$54. This was an average saving; the largest was \$541 made by a man whose assets when he had moved onto the project a year before had consisted of 1 horse, 2 cows, 3 heifers, and \$46 worth of tools and household goods. When this man came to Osage his assets totaled \$487 and his liabilities \$110; a year later his assets totaled \$2,208 and his liabilities \$1,289. His net assets had thus grown from \$377 to \$919.

#### COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION AND ACTIVITIES

In projects where the title to the land is still held by the Federal Government, the latter makes payments to the local authorities, in lieu of taxes, from the rent receipts. In return the community receives the police, fire, and school service furnished to the other towns in the area. When the property is sold to the homesteaders, the land is taxable; when conveyed to a homestead association, payments are made in lieu of taxes.

In a growing number of community projects the title to all the land and improvements has been turned over to a homestead association of which each family is a member. This association is responsible not only for the financial arrangements—collecting the payments from homesteaders, paying community bills, etc.—but also for the maintenance of the colony. This is done by a board of directors consisting of three elected homesteaders and two FSA representatives.

The greenbelt towns are incorporated as villages. Greendale, Wis., and Greenbelt, Md., have the city-manager form of government. Greenhills, Ohio, is governed by a mayor and the usual village officials. The same arrangement is also found at Jersey Homesteads which is incorporated as a borough under New Jersey law. Its governing body elected by the residents consists of mayor, councilman, justice of the peace, clerk, assessor, collector, and treasurer.

Thus, in the homestead projects each family participates as voter and former of policies, not only as regards the immediate actions in the homestead but in the community affairs.

One of the greatest advantages accruing to the homesteaders is to be able to participate in a normal community life, to achieve status in their own eyes and that of others, and to acquire a sense of "belonging" and of being needed. Many of these people have come from such a low stratum that they have never before had these satisfactions; others have not experienced them for years.

A study of various projects, made over a period of time, indicated that at the beginning there was some feeling of inferiority and distrust of neighbors.<sup>4</sup> The hardships, poverty, and frustration which the families had undergone prior to their acceptance into the project had "destroyed their faith in themselves, their initiative, and their hope for a brighter future." The report notes that, to the supervisors who have been in contact with the homesteaders from the beginning, the change in their mental attitude "has been the most important and striking accomplishment effected."

Each of the homestead communities has a community center in which the homesteaders may create their own diversions and carry on community activities. These activities are generally both educational and recreational. At a typical project there may be a parent-teacher association, small community clubs which meet informally and conduct their own programs, evening classes for adults in keeping of records, arithmetic, farm and homemaking methods, and groups for discussion of special problems of individual members. A special "community-night committee" plans games, dancing, and other entertainment. Interdenominational religious services are also held in the community center.

One project has a home improvement club which meets in five sections once a week and has a combined meeting once a month. Its work is a "combination of the health, education, home supervisor, and home economist activities."

In another project, many of the activities of which are organized on a cooperative basis, the cooperative association has standing committees on adult education, young people's work, Federal, State, and county relationships, homestead welfare, social and recreational development, fire prevention, roads, and homestead clean-up.

Other projects carry on special classes in crocheting, knitting, sewing, craft work, weaving for the women, and various farm subjects for the men.

<sup>4</sup> United States Department of Agriculture. Bureau of Agricultural Economics and Farm Security Administration cooperating. *Five Hundred Families Rehabilitate Themselves*, By Conrad Taeuber and Rachel Rowe. Washington, 1941, p. 18.

In several places the housewives have pooled their small individual contributions and pay the transportation charges on books from a State or other public library. Eventually, by donations and purchase, they amass a library of their own.

Even on scattered-farms projects, and where a rehabilitation project has covered a whole county, some community activity is possible. Thus, in Greene County (Georgia), community singing undertaken experimentally met with instant and general acceptance and developed eventually into a county-wide singing pageant in which groups from each community participated. As a result of the widespread interest a full-time recreational leader was appointed for the county "and organized recreation is now a permanent part of the unified county program."

#### *Local Standing*

The communities have had to prove their value, for often the other residents of the area looked upon the whole experiment with distrust and suspicion. That they have won their way is evidenced by the increasingly cordial social intercourse that now goes on between the homesteaders and the people of neighboring communities. The neighbors take part in many of the project affairs and the homesteaders likewise participate in the life of the larger community. A few of the colonists have even received the recognition of being chosen for positions of leadership and trust in the larger community. Thus, a member of one project was asked to run for justice of the peace of the county and in another a homesteader was elected to the school board. Several women are doing leadership work in local clubs.

#### *Young People on the Homesteads*

The young people of the homestead families—their training and their future—constitute a problem to which much attention has been given.

The homestead program provides for the parents and the young children. Many of the families, however, have half-grown or full-grown children and each year the total number of young people in the communities increases. However the homesteads are too small to furnish either work or support for so many workers. For at least half their time there is nothing for these young men and women to do. Therefore unless some means of training is devised which promises a future, the cycle from which the parents were rescued will repeat itself and the children will revert to the migrant and tenant army from which the parents have come.

A special effort has therefore been made to impart skills which will bring in cash returns. A typical project in this respect is Flint River Farms, Georgia. There the boys are taught proper farming methods,

stock feeding, poultry care, and other sound farm practices. The girls learn canning, gardening, and cooking, besides weaving rugs and making dresses, aprons, and shirts for sale. In an NYA project both boys and girls are learning how to weave and make mattresses. The boys have done some machine building and furniture making for the community center.

These young people learn how to handle livestock; how to use machinery and to care for its maintenance and repair; how to install, use, and maintain household equipment; and conservation of land. In short they obtain an all-round knowledge of the various phases of farm and home management.

At the same project a "training farm" is being operated. On this farm 40 young Negro families—those of sons and daughters of the homesteaders—are receiving good farm training. The tract of 1,800 acres is operated as a single cooperative unit, except that each house has 3 acres of land for a kitchen garden, poultry yard, etc. All of the land development (road construction, terracing, draining, and fencing) has been done by these young people under the instruction of the farm manager. The whole training project received a loan which is to be repaid, from the farm proceeds, in 40 years with interest at 3 percent.

It is expected that after 3 to 5 years' experience and training here, the young families will leave to take up land outside the project as tenants or owners. "Under average conditions, a family on this plantation should be able, in 5 years' time, to pay for all of its household furniture and equipment, build up an ample supply of food, and accumulate cash savings of about \$250."

### *Representative Homestead Projects*

Below are described several individual projects selected as representative of the various types of homestead developments.

#### **SKYLINE FARMS (ALABAMA)**

Skyline Farms is an example of a community hewn out of a wilderness by the settlers themselves. It represents a combination of subsistence homesteads and full-time farming.

Most of these families had either been on relief or were on the verge of it. Consequently, the furnishing of employment was one of the objectives of the project. Specifications were drawn for the houses, but as little cash was at first available for building supplies the situation was one that called forth all the native ingenuity of the people. Fortunately, the region was rich in forest resources as well as deposits of limestone, silica, and rock for road construction. The lumber was cut from the oak, poplar, and gumwood trees, at a sawmill borrowed

for the purpose. To obtain nails, windows, etc., excess lumber and stone was bartered.

The houses, necessarily of simple design, ranged in size from three to five rooms. Each house was equipped with cooking range, kitchen sink, cabinets, icebox, and screened doors and windows. In each homestead unit were included a sanitary privy, a barn, smokehouse, pigpen, poultry house, fences, and orchard trees. Individual wells supplied the water.

About 25 miles of road were built and surfaced with crushed rock from the tract, and 8 miles of already existing county road were improved.

Of 181 homesteads, 18 are of "subsistence" size, ranging from 2 to 12 acres and renting for from \$4 to \$10 per month. The others are family-size farms of about 40 acres, renting for from \$40 to \$100 per year. Some of the farms have been sold to the settlers (average price, \$2,662) on 40-year contracts and the others will eventually be sold.

This project, in addition to raising vegetables for home use, has specialized in truck farming. Contacts have been established in nearby cities and some produce has been sent as far as Ohio. In addition sugarcane is grown, processed in the community's own sirup plant, and sold at good prices.

In this as in other projects the settlers have considerably increased their assets through the operation of cooperative enterprise.

Some paid employment is supplied to the subsistence homesteaders by a hosiery plant established there by a well-known company. The settlers own 49 percent of the operating company that was formed to run the plant.

#### CASA GRANDE VALLEY FARMS (ARIZONA)

This project was started in an irrigated desert region where a process of concentration of farming had been going on for 20 years or more, so that large-scale farming was the rule. Against this mechanized agriculture small farms were at a great disadvantage, and many of these farmers had been forced into the tenant or laborer class. In view of the local conditions, it seemed desirable to make the project conform to the general local pattern. The development was therefore planned as a large-scale group operation.

By operating the tract as one unit, only one set of buildings was necessary for the farm, instead of individual buildings for each family; and a much smaller number of work horses, etc., was necessary.

The 60 houses, each with a large lot, were placed along the main road through the project. They rented for \$10, \$12, or \$14 per month according to size—3, 4, or 5 rooms.

To operate the project the residents formed a cooperative association—one membership to a family—in June 1937, obtained a loan of \$173,288 from FSA, and began operations in March 1938. A manager was appointed by the members from their own number and was made responsible to the elected board of directors. Other elected residents served as crop foreman, mechanic, dairy foreman, poultryman, irrigation foreman, gardener, and hog foreman.

The charter of the cooperative empowers it to engage in any cooperative enterprises relating to the growing, processing, and selling of agriculture products. It rents the land from the Government at a price equivalent to the current market price of 25 percent of all crops produced on the cooperative farm, and (for the alfalfa and pasture land) \$6.93 per acre. Should the rental for the farm land work out to a sum in excess of \$8,324.53 (set as the minimum necessary to cover taxes, insurance, and maintenance) plus 3 percent on the appraised value of the property, the excess is set aside to cover deficits of bad years. The rental payments cover the basic house rent as well as that of farm land and buildings. Rental of the land, title to which is retained by the Government, is on a long-term flexible basis which permits the cooperative to adjust its payments to crop conditions.

The cooperative has purchased trucks, farm machinery, and livestock for the place. It maintains a 15-acre community garden of row crops (beets, carrots, cabbage) which are distributed free to the member families. In addition each family has its own kitchen garden in which other vegetables are grown.

The family heads normally work full-time on the cooperative farm which is entirely mechanized. Also, they care for all of the machinery in the repair shop.

The first year (1938) the crops brought in \$7,700 in excess of expenses. The next year a water shortage throughout the entire valley reduced the net profit to \$1,513, but since that time the farming venture has been eminently successful.

The earnings from the farm have been increased by savings effected in the cooperative purchasing of supplies and cooperative marketing of the products. By being able, for instance, to ship a carload of hogs at a time the homesteaders effected a saving (in lower freight rates and in selling in the terminal market with higher than the local prices) of 10 to 15 cents per hundredweight.

A central community building houses an auditorium, a fully equipped kitchen, and sewing rooms. It is the center of all colony activity. Here are held the quarterly meetings of the cooperative board and the monthly meetings of the directors, as well as religious services, social meetings, demonstrations, sewing circles, and various

kinds of classes. There is a NYA-WPA nursery school on the project; the older children attend school in a nearby town.

Instruction is given in home economics by the Extension Service and the FSA Home Management Division. A 4-H club provides practical instruction in agriculture and homemaking. The Community Builders Club—an organization of young people—sponsors parties, dramatics, etc., and cooperates with outside religious and civic groups.

#### GEE'S BEND FARMS (ALABAMA)

One of the projects most interesting from the point of view of type of participants is the Gee's Bend project. This is one of the all-Negro projects.

The land involved in this development is a small peninsula made by a twist in the Alabama river. It was formerly a rich plantation worked by slaves and later by Negro freedmen, but the white owners had long since left and since 1900 the Negroes had rented the land and farmed it themselves.

Almost entirely cut off from the world, these families—about 100 in number—had a self-sufficient life of their own. Some of the older people, even today, speak a dialect (probably an African one) that outsiders cannot understand. Until the depression the community went along smoothly, growing its one crop—cotton—at fairly good prices, getting the necessary "furnish" from a merchant in a neighboring town, and making "a mildly profitable living."

Even after the depression struck, the merchant gave the families credit for 3 successive years, although the crop could not be sold for enough to cover his advances. Then he died in 1931 and the administrators of his estate seized every piece of movable property in satisfaction of the debt.

With assistance from the Red Cross and public relief, the families managed to keep alive during 1932 and 1933 but had no tools to work their farm or seed to plant. In 1934 Federal and local loans enabled them to start farming again. In 1937 the Government bought the land and created a homestead project.

Since then a rapid change has taken place in the community pattern of life. Crops and diet have been diversified. New simple frame houses have been built "with screened windows, and tight walls and roofs—all novelties at Gee's Bend." From the public health nurse the families have learned personal hygiene, home cleanliness, and how to care for the sick. From pooled contributions from all the families the home calls of two county doctors are paid for and a weekly clinic is held.

An inexpensive frame building forms a community center, with grammar school, health center, store, warehouse, and blacksmith

shop. There is also a cooperative association which runs a cotton gin, operates the store and a grist mill, and owns the plowing and haying equipment and purebred sires. This association does the purchasing of seeds, fertilizer, and other farm supplies and markets the farm produce through a special department. In 1938 the association showed a net gain of over \$400, in 1939 of \$1,228, and in 1940 of \$1,305.

The families, now renting their places, will begin buying them as soon as they have demonstrated their ability to carry the load. The problems are not all solved but, according to report, "for the first time in a generation, Gee's Bend is climbing upward, instead of sliding down."

#### OSAGE FARMS (MISSOURI)

Osage Farms represents a combination of 36 individual farms and 2 large tracts farmed cooperatively.

Each of the two cooperative farms is organized as an independent enterprise, with a Government loan to finance the purchase of machinery and livestock and to cover operating costs. These farms are run in the most modern and efficient way.

On the Bois d'Arc farm 24 families and on the Hill View farm 9 families reside. The labor of these people is highly specialized, the various ones being detailed to certain specific jobs, as care of the chickens, hogs, cows, etc. Work in the fields is shared by all. A manager runs the whole farm under the general direction of a board of directors elected by the settlers from their own number.

Accounts are kept by the settlers for each individual enterprise carried on, and the person in charge of each is responsible to the whole group for the results.

The nine houses at Hill View (each with sufficient land for a garden) are grouped together, being supplied with water from a common well. At Bois d'Arc six of the houses are grouped in the vicinity of the dairy and poultry enterprises. The others are scattered in twos and threes over the farm tract.

The colony created a place for itself in the area from the start. Not only do the settlers participate in all of the homestead affairs, but they take part in local meetings and social affairs in the surrounding region. Stock shows, dramatic contests (in one of which Bois d'Arc families took second place) 4-H activities, and baseball are some of the events participated in. A fair sponsored by the Osage families developed into a county-wide affair.

Within the project a library has been started, various cooperative enterprises provide service of numerous kinds, and all participate in the county-wide health association.

In spite of a hailstorm that wiped out or damaged the soybean and corn crop of a number of the individual farmers the first year, nearly all finished the year "in the black." The Bois d'Arc cooperative farm declared dividends (in addition to wages already received) amounting to about \$90 per family. This was net, in addition to shelter and food.

### *Difficulties Encountered*

Certain difficulties are inherent in the human material with whom the program deals. The homesteaders are of all degrees of intelligence and education. At one project practically all were illiterate. At others the groups have ranged all the way from college graduates to those with no schooling whatever. Some groups, such as the Lake Dick group, were rather above average in both intelligence and training. Each project has to feel its way, going only as fast as the understanding of the participants can be developed. All projects have had their share of difficulties from weather and other natural conditions.

Other difficulties have been the age-old habits of superstition and ignorance both in daily life and in agriculture. It is not easy to get the settlers to change their dietary habits or to adopt new ways of farming. However, much can be done by example and once they have had a chance to see the results of improved methods they are generally eager to follow.

Misunderstandings and dissatisfaction occasionally arise. Some of the homesteaders grow dissatisfied, or rebel against supervision and leave the project. Some fail to make good or to conform to the plan which they themselves help to formulate. In such cases they find that no renewal of the lease is forthcoming at the end of the term. On one project, 35 percent of the homesteaders—all on a tenant basis—were in this class; most of these, however, had had little previous experience in farming.

Some settlers, even those who have been allowed to buy their land, become dissatisfied. Some of them feel that the 40-year purchase period is such a long time that for all practical purposes the farmer keeps right on being a tenant, and only his children benefit. To this could be replied, of course, not only that participation is entirely voluntary, but that payment of the purchase price can be at as fast a rate as the homesteader's progress and earnings allow.

The cooperative-farming projects appear to appeal more than the individual farms to a certain type of person. To others the reverse is true; they feel that work for wages, with a problematical increment at the end of the year, does not provide the same incentive as the prospect of owning one's own place. Perhaps a larger amount of turn-over has therefore occurred on the cooperative projects than elsewhere, although

it is undoubtedly true that economy of operation of a single large farm, in contrast to many small ones, results in larger earnings. At one project where the land—averaging about 45 acres per family—is farmed cooperatively, an unusually great increase in standard of living has taken place. This, it is pointed out, "is testimony to the tremendous advantage gained through properly planned cooperative operation of the land. Through selection and variation of crops it has been found possible to lower the labor peaks and fill in the low spots, so as to provide more than twice as much labor for the residents as they are able to find when working as harvest hands and day laborers on neighboring plantations."

### *Accomplishments Under the Program*

The Farm Security Administration appraises the homestead program as follows:

In general, the projects which have been planned as full-time farming enterprises for farm families have succeeded. The problem has been more difficult in planning agricultural-industrial communities for stranded industrial workers. However, even these experiments seem to be working satisfactorily in most cases.

From the point of view of the participating families, the program has, on the whole, been highly successful. By providing capital it has enabled them to get another start. Long-term leases and eventually the opportunity to purchase have meant greater security of tenure. Combination of purchasing power has enabled the homesteaders to obtain supplies and machinery on equal terms with the large farmer. Cooperative marketing enables them to compete with him in the sale of their products. The program has meant greater employment, and consequently greater income, in a better-balanced farm economy. It has meant a much-improved standard of living, better health resulting from receipt of adequate medical care, more sanitary surroundings, and better and more varied diet. It has provided a source of technical and financial advice, training in farm and home management and in habits of thrift, and opportunities for further increase of knowledge in classes provided for the purpose.

It has helped to develop the resourcefulness and independence of the participants, and has brought out their latent abilities. It has enabled them to participate in a normal community life—in some cases, for the first time in their lives. It has meant a chance to develop a spirit of mutual helpfulness, a sense of status in the community, and above all a hope for the future.

The whole industrial economy benefits by the increased purchasing power of these families. Not only are they buying and using today innumerable goods that they could never afford before, but their circle of wants has been enlarged by the inclusion of many items of

whose use they had previously not known. Some of the commodities of universal use in families more easily situated financially—many articles of clothing, table and bed linen, towels, window curtains, screens, even mattresses—were practically unknown to some of the participating families. The raising of their economic level taps a hitherto unexploited market and helps the nearby communities, also, to increased prosperity.

After an early period of distrust and disapproval, the projects have usually won the approbation of nearby civic and business leaders. These have come to realize that whereas the homestead families were previously beaten and dispirited persons whose living conditions were often primitive, their dwellings are now clean and sanitary. The improvements made in the area occupied by the projects have increased the value of all the property in the locality. In brief, what was a liability to the locality and Nation has been changed into an asset.

## *Wartime Policies*

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### **PACIFIC COAST SHIPBUILDING AGREEMENT**

ON January 13, 1942, the hours and overtime provisions of the Pacific coast shipbuilding master agreement<sup>1</sup> were amended to provide for continuous operation during the war period. The terms adopted in a joint conference of employers, representatives of the metal trades councils (A. F. of L.), Navy Department, and Maritime Commission, under the auspices of the Office of Production Management, provide that—

- (a) Pacific coast shipyards shall be placed on a basis of continuous operation, 24 hours per day and 7 days per week, to the end that maximum possible production of ships will result.
- (b) The regular workweek shall consist of six regularly established shifts for each employee; for the first five such shifts worked the employee will be paid at the straight-time rate, and on the sixth shift worked the employee will be paid at time-and-one-half rate. No workman shall be required to work a seventh shift during any workweek, except in extreme emergencies, and in such cases he shall be paid at the rate of double time.
- (c) If possible, the day off to which each workman is entitled shall be rotated, so that each man shall have an equal chance over regular periods to be off on either a Saturday or a Sunday. However, this policy, as well as the method of accomplishment, shall be left to agreement between management and local metal trades councils. If necessary, and if agreed to between management and local metal trades councils, paragraph (b) may be modified to accomplish rotation of days off.
- (d) The calendar days of holidays recognized by the local metal trades councils of the Pacific coast area shall be compensated for at double-time rates, regardless of which day of the standard operating week such holiday falls upon.

<sup>1</sup> See *Monthly Labor Review*, May 1941 (p. 1162).

## GENERAL CONSCRIPTION OF MANPOWER IN GREAT BRITAIN, 1941<sup>1</sup>

WOMEN as well as men are subject to conscription for service in the armed forces, in civil defense, or in industry, under the terms of the National Service (No. 2) Act of 1941, adopted by Great Britain in mid-December. Conscription of women is a departure from previous policy. However, women will not be required to use lethal weapons unless they volunteer to do so. The Emergency Powers Act of 1940<sup>2</sup> gave the British Government control over life and property and authorized the Government to enforce industrial service. The present law defines these powers exactly, extends compulsion to the auxiliary military forces, and provides for the calling up of additional age groups. Like earlier wartime measures, this act is of the enabling type, and permits the Government in its discretion to conscript special classes of men and women, as needed.

In presenting the conscription plan the Prime Minister stated that the "crisis of manpower and womanpower" would dominate the year 1942. Under earlier legislation, he added, all women above 18 were already liable to be directed into industry by the Minister of Labor and National Service. But, according to the Government reading of earlier enactments, there was no power to require women to serve in the uniformed auxiliary forces of the crown or in civil defense.<sup>3</sup> Men and women are now equally liable for service.

### *Provisions for Women*

For the present, unmarried women in the age groups between 20 and 30 years will be called for service in that order as required. Notice will be given before additional age groups are called. Each woman conscript will have the option of serving in the auxiliary forces, in civil defense, or in specified industries. If no preference is expressed, she will be placed in one or another of these branches. Exceptions will be made in case of women engaged in vital war work or service.

Armed forces to which women are liable are the Women's Royal Naval Service, the Auxiliary Territorial Service, and the Women's Auxiliary Air Force (without prejudice to their liability to be called up for civil defense under the earlier National Service Act of 1941).<sup>3</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Data are from Great Britain, Ministry of Labor and National Service, *Man-Power*, London, 1941, (Cmd. 6324); Parliament, House of Commons, *National Service Bill* (No. 5), 5 Geo. 6; and *The Manchester Guardian Weekly* (Manchester), December 5, 1941.

<sup>2</sup> See *Monthly Labor Review*, May 1941 (p. 1080).

<sup>3</sup> See *Monthly Labor Review*, June 1941 (p. 1393), for National Service Act of 1941 governing civil-defense work.

Exemptions are granted for married women or for a woman who has living with her a child of her own under the age of 14 (including a stepchild, adopted child, or illegitimate child). Women engaged in a number of nursing and other organizations are also exempted. These services are listed in a schedule attached to the law.

At the end of 1941, women aged 21 to 31 years already had been registered under the Registration for Employment Order.<sup>4</sup> These and future registrations will be used as necessary in calling women for National Service. The plans called for registering women of age 20 (1921 class) early in 1942, and those aged 32 to 40 are to be registered at fortnightly intervals thereafter. Women who are not being considered for calling up will ordinarily be regarded as available to be moved to important employment, that is if they are not already properly used in the war effort. In general, wives of men in the armed forces or married women with household responsibilities will not be moved. Doubtful cases will be decided by the women's panels. Appeals from their decisions will be allowed.

### *Provisions for Other Groups*

Men are liable for military service through the age of 50, instead of 40 as had previously been provided under the National Service Acts. Although the lower age limit for calling up boys was previously 18, they had not been taken until the age of 19. It has now been decided that the lower limit for taking boys into the Forces should be reduced to 18½ years. Men over 41 years of age who are called will be used for sedentary work to liberate younger men for more active duty.

Boys and girls between the ages of 16 and 18 are to be required to register and will be interviewed by the Youth Service Committee of the Education Authority, with a view to encouraging them to join appropriate organizations. The minimum age for entry into the Home Guard is to be reduced to 16 for certain duties.

### *Individual Deferments*

It has been decided that the system of block reservation under the Schedule of Reserved Occupations<sup>5</sup> must, in general, be replaced gradually by a system whereby individual deferments are granted after cases are reviewed. The transition is to be made by raising the age of reservation by 1-year steps each month, beginning in January 1942. This scheme is not to apply to certain classes of men covered by the Schedule of Reserved Occupations, such as those in the merchant marine. Special schemes are to be adopted for men in agriculture, building, coal mining, and the Civil Service.

<sup>4</sup> See *Monthly Labor Review*, May 1941 (p. 1083).

<sup>5</sup> See *Monthly Labor Review*, October 1941 (p. 885).

## WITHDRAWAL OF YOUNG WOMEN FROM CERTAIN PURSUITS IN GREAT BRITAIN<sup>1</sup>

YOUNG women are being withdrawn from specified industries and occupations in Great Britain for employment in vital war work. Arrangements for the withdrawal are similar to those in the case of an earlier order relating to young women in retail trade.<sup>2</sup> This action is being taken under the Registration for Employment Order of 1941 (in effect prior to the general conscription described in the preceding article), and affects young women 20 to 25 years of age employed in the light- and heavy-clothing sections of the clothing industry, and also in the woolen and worsted industry. For firms in the light-clothing industry, which are engaged to the extent of 75 percent or more on the production of light utility clothing, facilities are being provided to replace the workers prior to their withdrawal.

Voluntary organizations engaged in work in connection with the war effort will lose the services of young women in the 20- to 30-year age groups, unless (1) the work on which the women are employed requires special knowledge and qualifications, and the continued utilization of the women on this work is required by the national interest; (2) they cannot be replaced by older women; (3) they are regularly employed for not less than 44 hours weekly by one of the organizations. Voluntary workers filling full-time positions in the authorized establishments of the Civil Defense Services are not affected.

Under a previous determination by the Ministry of Labor the voluntary organizations were designated which were competent to issue certificates for full-time workers (44 hours a week) on work essential to the war effort, including work essential to morale and general well-being of the community. Persons covered by such work certificates have not hitherto been required to transfer to other employment if they could not reasonably be substituted for by older women. These cases are now being reviewed, and the persons concerned will be called for interview unless they fulfill the newly adopted conditions.

Women are also to be withdrawn from certain Postal Service occupations. Mobile women of 20 to 25 years of age employed as post-women on non-motor-driving duties and on sorting work are to be released for women's auxiliary services or munitions works. Similarly, women falling in this classification employed on telephone, telegraph, or counter work, who were not in Post Office employment before August 1, 1941, will be released after substitutes are engaged. In

<sup>1</sup> Data are from Great Britain, Ministry of Labor Gazette (London), November 1941.

<sup>2</sup> See Monthly Labor Review, January 1942 (p. 56).

future the Post Office will not recruit women aged 20 to 25 years for telephone, telegraph, or counter work, or women under 30 years of age as postwomen and sorters.



## INCREASED ALLOWANCES FOR DEPENDENTS IN BRITISH MILITARY FORCES

THE maximum family allowance for members of the British Forces is to be raised from £2 to £3 per week, exclusive of grants made by Service Departments under their regulations. The method of assessing special allowances, known as "war service grants," has been revised in order to provide for the varying circumstances of the families covered.<sup>1</sup>

The most important type of case for which additional provision is made is that in which the family of a man in the service has a low standard of living, because the preservice maintenance standard is taken as the basis of comparison in determining war-service grants.

Subject to the maximum rate of £3 per week under the new provision, it has been decided to fix a minimum standard of maintenance, after reasonable commitments have been met for rent, taxes, insurance premiums, etc., below which a service man's family should not be allowed to fall during his term of service. The standard to be adopted for this purpose is 16s. per unit, two children under the school-leaving age being counted as one unit. Under these arrangements the wife with two children, for example, would be assured of a sum of 32s. a week for maintenance.

This more liberal provision is intended to be chiefly applicable to married men with children, as at present the allowance for a childless wife is felt to be broadly adequate. However, even in the latter case, the benefit under the new measure would be granted to those certified as unfit for employment because of infirmity, age, or pregnancy.

Furthermore, subject to the weekly maximum of £3, families whose preservice maintenance standard was above 16s. per unit will still be eligible for allowances with reference to such standard. "Up to the level of 20s. per unit the full amount of any difference in the unit income will be made good; this represents an improvement on the present practice. Above that level some sacrifice can reasonably be required under existing conditions and only part of the difference will be made good: a graduated scale will be applied to higher unit incomes and will be so adjusted as to give more liberal treatment than at present."

<sup>1</sup> Great Britain, Ministry of Pensions, Improved Arrangements for Making Provision for Families of Members of H. M. Forces During the Present War, London, 1941, (Cmd. 6318); and Great Britain, House of Commons, Parliamentary Debates, October 16, 1941, Official Report, London, 1941.

As the preservice maintenance standard varies with the actual date of joining the forces, the preservice basic wage is usually loaded to take into account the general wartime rise, and this practice is to be continued.

While it is believed necessary to have a fixed maximum rate of allowance, the maximum of £2 per week now in force is to be raised, as stated above, to £3, exclusive of any grants made by the Service Departments under their regulations.

Another type of case is that in which the family is faced by an emergency resulting from serious and protracted illness or death of one of its members. In future, allowances may be granted, in addition to any sums already available (as, for example, from insurance), to meet these emergencies. Consequently, when illness involves extra expenditure of more than £2, an allowance may be granted to meet the expense above this sum up to a maximum of £10; and in the case of death an allocation of not more than £7 10s. may be made toward the excess cost of the funeral over any amount available to meet it.

Under the present rules for the assessment of war-service allowances the member of the forces is expected to contribute to his family a sum per week "which, during the early period of his service, leaves him with little or no increase in the amount available for his own use as a result of proficiency or promotion."

In future, in computing the war-service allowance, the family will receive only the amount of the qualifying allocation fixed for army cases until the man's total pay is above 4s. per day, including his war pay of 6d. per day. (The standard for the army is adopted with a view to uniformity, as the actual qualifying allotments vary in amount in the different forces.) Above this standard, according to the provisions under review, "it is reasonable that the man should contribute to his family four-sevenths of any addition to his pay, retaining the remaining three-sevenths for his personal use."

During 1941 the methods of assessing allowances payable to dependents of unmarried men were improved, but it is proposed to supplement these by making the above arrangements applicable to a wholly dependent parent of a man in the service who was the bread-winner of the household.

All the above changes were effective from the first pay day in November 1941.



## AUSTRALIAN EMPLOYMENT REGULATIONS, 1941<sup>1</sup>

UNDER regulations adopted by the Australian Government on July 8, 1941, employers may not entice workers from other employers and

<sup>1</sup> New South Wales (Australia). Department of Labor and Industry and Social Services. The New South Wales Industrial Gazette (Sydney), August 1941 (pp. 176, 180-187).

may not pay wages above the rates authorized for the occupation. In August, two employers had already been prosecuted for payment in excess of the maximum-wage rates fixed by the National Security (Employment) Regulations. The regulations referred to were made under the National Security Act of 1939-40 and are administered by the Minister of State for Labor and National Service. Earlier emergency employment regulations are repealed and are replaced by those described below. However, all arrangements made under the earlier regulations are to be continued in force, as if they had been made by the Minister of Labor and National Service.

Power is granted to the Minister of Labor to make such provision as he considers necessary, for the training of workers in skills that are essential to the efficient prosecution of the war. He may also arrange for the employment of trained personnel in the trade or branch of trade in which he determines that labor is needed.

Employers not engaged in the manufacture, production, repair, or overhaul of munitions for war purposes may not hire employees unless they secure permits from the secretary of the Department of Labor and National Service. Employers engaged in munitions work are required to notify that Department of their intentions to hire workers. The notification must be made on a prescribed form and the employer must furnish specified particulars in relation to the employee.

The detailed regulations forbidding employers to entice workers from other jobs apply to employers engaged in munitions and other work. An employer may not invite any employee to whom the regulations apply (other than an employee not actually employed in his trade or occupation) to enter his employ, nor may he intimate in any manner that he has vacancies for the employees covered, unless he includes in the invitation or intimation his full name and address and a statement that a munitions worker will not be considered unless he is not working in his usual trade or occupation. The employees covered are listed in the first schedule to the regulations. Occupations specified in this schedule are in a number of industries, including metal, optical, and motor-vehicle building.

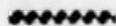
Offers of higher pay than the rates fixed in the second, third, and fourth schedules of the regulations are forbidden. Notwithstanding this provision, employers of workers engaged on war work may make specified additions to the wages of shipwrights or ship painters and dockers (but not to exceed 3s. weekly if such payment was being made to the employee on September 19, 1940). A similar provision is made for ironworkers in the State of New South Wales, in pursuance of a pre-existing arrangement between employers and employees.

Wage provisions under awards and court orders, if equal to or exceeding those set forth in the schedules to the regulations, will apply upon publication thereof in the Official Gazette. Thereafter no changes in payment may be made or offered by the employer. Special modifications are listed in the regulations to permit existing awards and orders to remain effective in different States of the Commonwealth.

In addition to the prescribed wage rates, employers may pay to their employees an amount by way of "merit money" not to exceed the amount, if any, paid by that employer in the pay period including July 5, 1940. The employer may also make such a payment to an employee in the amount paid to him by another employer in that pay period. Any special allowances which may be approved may likewise be paid. It is also provided that the rate of payment made to any employee (immediately before the effective date of the regulations here summarized) under the terms of an industrial award, agreement, determination, or regulation shall be continued even though it is higher than the rate set forth in the schedules already referred to. The employee may not, however, receive more than the higher rate to which he was entitled by reason of the regulations or earlier agreement.

The obligation placed on employers to refrain from making or offering higher wages than are required by court award is subject to such exceptions and undertakings as are specified or referred to in the award.

In prosecuting a Sydney munitions employer for paying a first-class machinist £6 15s. instead of £6 4s. in a particular week, it was contended that the employer's breach was technical and was caused by a wrong interpretation. A fine of £4 was imposed. A Melbourne employer had paid a weekly wage of £6 11s.—9s. above the authorized maximum of £6 2s.—to a fitter engaged in the manufacture of aircraft parts. The fine in this case was £2. The Crown counsel stated that the regulations were made to prevent trafficking in skilled workmen. As most contracts are on a "cost-plus" basis, the effect would be for the Government to pay higher wages and the employer to collect a higher percentage of profit on the inflated cost.



## EXTENSION OF WARTIME WAGE CONTROL IN CANADA TO SMALL EMPLOYERS

A CANADIAN order in council of December 5, 1941,<sup>1</sup> extends the provisions of the wartime wages and cost-of-living bonus order of

<sup>1</sup> Canada Gazette (Ottawa), Extra No. 101, December 9, 1941.

October 24, 1941,<sup>2</sup> to smaller employers who had previously been excluded. The new order reads in part as follows:

2. (1) In this order, unless the context otherwise requires, "employer" means any person, firm, or corporation employing any person but shall not include (i) any department or agency of the Government of Canada subject to the provisions of order in council, P. C. 6702, of 26th August 1941, as amended; or (ii) any department or agency of any provincial government or any municipality; or (iii) any person, firm or corporation engaged in agriculture, horticulture, fishing, hunting or trapping; or (iv) any hospital or religious, charitable, or educational institution or association not carried on for purposes of gain.

(2) This order shall be applicable in respect of all employment by any employer other than domestic service in a private home and employment of a casual nature otherwise than for the purpose of the employer's trade or business.

The amending order also provides for 9 regional War Labor Boards, one for each Province, an increase of 4 over the number stipulated in P. C. 8253.

Section 16 of P. C. 8253 is also amended by P. C. 9514, by the addition of the following statement:

Notwithstanding any provision of any collective agreement with respect to working conditions, either party to any such agreement may apply to the National War Labor Board for the revision or suspension of any such conditions and the Board shall have power to direct any revision or suspension thereof not inconsistent with the provisions of this order which it may deem advisable.

<sup>2</sup> Monthly Labor Review, December 1941 (p. 1392) and Canada Gazette (Ottawa) October 24, 1941.

## *Employment and Business Conditions*

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### **CHARACTERISTICS OF SHIPBUILDING LABOR HIRED DURING FIRST 6 MONTHS OF 1941<sup>1</sup>**

ONE-FOURTH (25.1 percent) of the skilled workers hired during the first half of 1941 by a number of the shipbuilders on the Atlantic coast were recruited from the ranks of the unemployed. Manufacturing industries (including other shipyards) provided slightly less than a fourth (23.4 percent) of the 3,445 new workers included in the sample, while nonmanufacturing industries contributed one-third (32.4 percent) thereof. As defense requirements make it undesirable that skilled workers be drawn away from manufacturing industries, this may be considered a change for the better as compared with the preceding 7 months,<sup>2</sup> when 36.6 percent of the 1,752 new workers included in the sample for that period came from manufacturing industries, while nonmanufacturing industries and the unemployed contributed 29.0 and 18.4 percent, respectively.

These conclusions are based on a study of new accessions in shipbuilding labor made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics at the request of the Shipbuilding Stabilization Committee of the Office of Production Management. During July and August 1941, Bureau representatives again visited the five private shipyards that were included in an earlier study made in the last 3 months of 1940 and January 1941. These yards were all on the Atlantic coast, from Connecticut to Virginia. The purpose of these visits was to supplement the earlier study wherein information was obtained pertaining to the characteristics of workers hired in skilled occupations between June and December 1940. Included in the second study were 3,445 workers, or about 95 percent of the skilled accessions in these yards during the period January 1 to June 30, 1941.

The employees covered included those hired as shipfitters, machinists, electricians, sheet-metal workers, welders, etc. Information secured included occupation, date hired, age, marital status, number of dependents, former industry, former employer, and length of time

<sup>1</sup> Prepared by O. R. Mann and S. F. Miller, of the Bureau's Employment and Occupational Outlook Branch.

<sup>2</sup> See *Monthly Labor Review*, May 1941 (pp. 1142-1145).

with former employer. These data were obtained by the Bureau's representatives from the individual job applications or from questionnaires filled in directly by the workers.

### *Former Industrial Affiliation*

During the period, January to June 1941, the proportion of skilled workers recruited from manufacturing industries increased steadily each month until June, when the largest percentage of accessions came from this source (table 1). In January the largest group (41.6 percent) was obtained from the ranks of the unemployed. During February, March, April, and May, however, nonmanufacturing industries were the largest contributors of skilled workers to the shipbuilding industry. The largest drain on the prime defense industries occurred during June. Of the total skilled accessions during that month, 15.4 percent were obtained from the aircraft, machine-tool, ordnance, and shipbuilding industries. In the interests of defense, large-scale drains of skilled personnel from manufacturing industries is not desirable. However, continued shortages of materials for the manufacture of certain nondefense commodities may make these industries an increasing source of skilled workers for shipyards.

Both the unemployed and the self-employed contributed substantially to the skilled workers hired by the shipyards. Small numbers were also obtained each month from persons on WPA projects.

TABLE 1.—*Industrial Sources of Skilled Workers Hired in Selected Atlantic Coast Shipyards, January 1–June 30, 1941*

Industrial source	Total		Percent hired in each month					
	Number	Percent	January	February	March	April	May	June
Manufacturing industries								
Aircraft and aircraft engines, Government	807	23.4	17.7	18.7	19.7	25.3	25.4	32.6
Aircraft and aircraft engines, private	4	.1		.3	.3			
Machine tools	21	.6	.9	.3	.7	.5	.9	.5
Ordnance, Government	10	.3	.2		.2	.4	.5	.5
Ordnance, private	11	.3	.4	.2	.3	.2	.5	.3
Shipbuilding, Government	82	2.4	1.5	1.2	2.3	2.9	2.7	3.6
Shipbuilding, private	52	1.5	.4	.9	1.1	.5	1.9	3.8
Other manufacturing industries	172	5.0	4.6	4.2	2.8	6.5	5.3	6.7
Nonmanufacturing industries	455	13.2	9.7	11.6	12.0	14.3	13.6	17.2
Other Government (Federal, State, and local)	1,114	32.4	21.9	32.2	37.6	38.4	31.2	30.5
Self-employed	94	2.7	2.9	2.3	3.1	2.9	2.7	2.6
Work Projects Administration	390	11.3	11.9	13.7	10.1	11.6	13.5	7.3
Unemployed	70	2.0	1.8	1.2	2.9	3.1	1.2	2.0
Not reported	862	25.1	41.6	29.0	23.8	14.9	21.8	22.2
Total	3,445	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 2 gives a quarterly comparison of the relative importance of industrial sources as revealed by the two studies. Manufacturing industries as a contributing source declined steadily until the second quarter of 1941, when the percentage almost reached the high point of

the first period covered. The unemployed, on the other hand, were a major contributing source until the last period, when there was a sharp decrease in the percentage obtained from their ranks. A rise in the proportion of the skilled workers coming from miscellaneous manufacturing industries is probably to be expected. A rise in the proportion drawn from other essential war industries, such as occurred in the second quarter of 1941, represents a waste of manpower in the period of turn-over. It is to be noted that this rise occurred from month to month within the quarter.

TABLE 2.—*Industrial Sources of Skilled Workers Hired in Selected Atlantic Coast Shipyards, July 1, 1940—June 30, 1941, by Quarter*

Industrial source	Percent hired in each quarter			
	1940		1941	
	Third quarter	Fourth quarter	First quarter	Second quarter
Manufacturing industries				
Aircraft and aircraft engines (Government)	.5	.2	.2	
Aircraft and aircraft engines (private)	.5	1.5	.6	.6
Machine tools	2.9	2.4	.1	.5
Ordnance (Government)			.3	.3
Ordnance (private)			1.7	3.1
Shipbuilding (Government)	2.8	2.4	.9	2.1
Shipbuilding (private)	4.1	4.4	3.8	6.2
Other manufacturing industries	18.1	10.3	11.3	15.2
Other sources	71.1	78.8	81.1	72.0
Nonmanufacturing industries	26.0	24.7	31.4	33.2
Other Government	3.2	2.2	2.7	2.7
Self-employed	11.5	8.3	11.9	10.7
Work Projects Administration	1.8	.9	2.0	2.1
Unemployed (including schools and colleges)	24.6	37.6	30.4	19.7
Not reported	4.0	5.1	2.7	3.6
Total, percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total, number	883	543	1,715	1,730

### Geographical Sources

Table 3 shows the geographical location of the workers at the time of filing application. There were representatives of 33 States, the District of Columbia, and the Canal Zone, among the 3,445 workers included in the study. Over four-fifths (84.3 percent) came from the five States in which the shipyards studied were situated; i. e., Connecticut, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia. Of the total number hired, one-third (33.4 percent) came from Pennsylvania, with New Jersey contributing more than one-fourth (26.2 percent).

During January 85.7 percent, and in June, the last month covered by the report, 83.4 percent, of all workers came from these five States. An examination by State, however, shows that the percentage hired in June from Connecticut, Maryland, and New Jersey was considerably less than in January, while for Virginia and Pennsylvania the reverse was true.

**TABLE 3.—Geographical Sources of Skilled Workers Hired in Selected Atlantic Coast Shipyards, January 1–June 30, 1941**

State and region	Total	Percent hired in each month					
		Janu- ary	Febru- ary	March	April	May	June
<b>New England States:</b>							
Connecticut	6.4	6.2	7.2	9.0	6.0	5.5	4.4
Other <sup>1</sup>	2.0	2.0	2.5	1.6	2.5	2.1	1.3
<b>Middle Atlantic States:</b>							
New Jersey	26.2	34.2	30.5	26.1	20.6	19.8	26.8
New York	3.4	3.1	3.4	2.6	4.2	2.6	4.7
Pennsylvania	33.4	27.2	28.0	29.7	32.5	40.3	41.6
<b>South Atlantic States:</b>							
Maryland	10.0	13.0	8.8	8.0	13.4	12.9	5.2
Virginia	8.3	5.1	9.6	12.6	10.1	6.4	5.4
Other <sup>1</sup>	7.1	6.6	6.0	7.8	7.8	6.2	8.0
All other States <sup>1</sup>	2.0	1.5	2.3	1.8	1.6	2.6	1.8
Not reported	1.2	1.1	1.7	.8	1.3	1.6	.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

<sup>1</sup> Alabama, California, Colorado, Delaware, District of Columbia, Florida, Georgia, Idaho, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maine, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, North Carolina, Ohio, Oregon, Rhode Island, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Vermont, West Virginia, Wisconsin, and Canal Zone.

Table 4 shows the extent of migration to the various yards. It is interesting to note that in every instance the great majority of workers hired came from the State in which the yard was located and its adjacent State or States. The basic material shows a limited amount of hiring across State lines; i. e., a company in New Jersey might obtain some men from Pennsylvania and vice versa. Owing to the proximity of the yards, however, this was to be expected.

**TABLE 4.—Extent of Migration of Skilled Workers Hired in Selected Atlantic Coast Shipyards, January 1–June 30, 1941**

Shipbuilding establishment	Total	Percent of workers obtained from—			
		Within same State	Adjacent State or States	Other States	Not re- ported
Yard A	100.0	68.0	15.1	16.9	
Yard B	100.0	62.5	29.5	8.0	
Yard C	100.0	79.6	12.2	5.4	2.8
Yard D	100.0	58.6	17.7	20.0	3.7
Yard E	100.0	61.6	22.3	16.1	
Total	100.0	66.3	21.4	11.2	1.2

### *Age of Shipyard Workers*

A distribution of the 3,445 skilled workers by age group (table 5), shows that more than one-fourth (28.8 percent) were under 30 years of age at the time hired. At the other extreme, there were nearly one-fourth (23.7 percent) who were 45 years old and over.

TABLE 5.—*Ages of Skilled Workers Hired in Selected Atlantic Coast Shipyards, January 1–June 30, 1941*

Month hired	All groups	Under 21 years	21-29 years	30-35 years	36-39 years	40-44 years	45 years and over
January	100.0	1.3	22.6	22.3	11.7	15.0	27.1
February	100.0	.8	24.8	21.6	15.1	14.9	22.8
March	100.0	1.0	27.6	19.9	13.4	14.8	23.3
April	100.0	2.0	26.7	20.5	11.8	13.6	25.4
May	100.0	2.5	28.1	20.7	13.3	13.5	21.9
June	100.0	3.8	30.1	21.4	12.4	9.3	23.0
Total	100.0	1.9	26.9	21.0	13.0	13.5	23.7



## FRENCH LABOR CHARTER

THE labor charter for France, which had been under discussion by the council of ministers for some months, was presented to the Chief of the French State, and put into effect by a decree dated October 4, 1941.<sup>1</sup> In the report accompanying the decree it was stated that the charter lays down the general rules which will govern the relations of the workers both in the exercise of their trades and in the development of their material and moral life. It was the purpose of the committee, in drawing up the charter, "to break definitely with the old system of the class struggle." The charter provides for the creation of joint social committees made up of all the members of a profession, which committees, however, will be entirely different from the syndicates of the past. These organizations will serve as the basis for the establishment eventually of the "corporations" which the report states will be "the great hope of the French future." The report points to two concrete achievements in the charter, one the establishment of the principles of a method for the determination of wages, and the other a scheme for participation in profits and the creation of a common fund to be used to improve "the security and well-being" of those concerned.

### General Regulations

The law provides for the division of professional activities among a determined number of industrial and commercial groups. These groups and the occupations comprised in them will be organized to manage in common the professional interests of all classes of their members. Within this organization everyone will participate in the professional activity of the group and will be subject to the duties, obligations, and responsibilities imposed, and to the general professional laws and regulations. They will be required to participate in the expenses of the group to which they belong. Members of a

<sup>1</sup> Journal Officiel de l'Etat Français (Vichy), October 26, 1941.

group will be classified according to their professional qualifications; and wage earners, in exchange for their work, will be entitled to the salary and advantages attached to their classification.

There seems to be no exact English equivalent for the words "profession" and "professionnel" as used in the French law. Apparently these terms are intended to refer variously to industry, trade, or occupational groups.

Employers are to be given an authority corresponding to the social, technical, and financial responsibility which they assume; upon them is imposed the duty of managing the enterprises for the common good of all the members.

Within the scope of the legislation in force, the organized professions are expected to insure security of labor for their members and to contribute to their well-being by the establishment and management of social institutions of every kind.

Strikes and lock-outs are prohibited.

### *Classification of Industries*

Organization provided for by the law is both social and professional. Consequently, the activities of the organizations are the subject of a double classification.

For questions of a social nature, industrial and commercial establishments are assigned to a specified number of professional groups. A separate organization will be created for each of these groups, and eventually organization within the group, by industry and occupation, will follow.

For questions of a professional nature, each profession is attached to a group chosen by reason of its particular competence in regard to the profession in question. This group will form organizations qualified to deal with the problems of the professions concerned.

Civil servants are excluded from the field of activity of the present law because of a special law covering these employees, which was passed September 14, 1941,<sup>2</sup> but special regulations will be issued to reconcile the provisions of the two laws. Agents of public industrial services other than those included in the law of September 14 are included in the present law.

Decrees to be issued will fix the nomenclature of professional groups; the allocation of industries and commercial establishments to professional groups; the connection of the professions with these groups; and the relationship between the groups and the provisional organization committees established by the law of August 16, 1940.

<sup>2</sup> See *Monthly Labor Review*, January 1942 (p. 130).

### The Syndicates

Members of the professions will be grouped in professional syndicates, by localities. This grouping will be established by decree. Within these syndicates separate groups will be formed for employers, workers, employees, executives (*agents de maîtrise*), engineers, etc. Similar categories can be united when the individual groups are small. In cooperative societies the president and general manager are considered as employers.

In each case the area to be covered by a syndicate will be determined by provisional organizing committees to be established for each professional group, and, in principle, will include the personnel of many enterprises. The area covered by the syndicates will not necessarily be the same for different categories.

All persons, whatever their age and nationality, who are engaged in a professional activity, are required to belong to a syndicate of their special classification, but any person may be excluded from such a group by decision of the competent committees for serious or repeated violation of the labor laws or corporative regulations or for activity contrary to the general interests of the country. Appeals from such decisions may be made to the regional social committee or, as a last resort, to the national social committee.

Artisans constitute, in principle, a special section of the professional syndicates.

The functions of the syndical groups include representation of their members, transmission or execution of corporative decisions, and study of and proposals for solution of problems concerning their members. All political or confessional activity is strictly forbidden.

The syndicates will be directed by administrative councils, the members of which must be French nationals, at least 25 years of age, who have no criminal record, and who have been members of the profession in question for at least 5 years, 2 of which must have been in the area covered by the syndicate.

Expenses of the professional organizations are to be met by contributions of the social committees and fees from the participants.

### Unions and Federations

Unions and federations will be organized by profession or by groups of professions, the unions being organized on a regional basis as representatives of the professional syndical councils, and the federations on a national basis. Only one union and one federation may represent a single professional group. The constitutions and bylaws of the unions must be approved by the competent national social committee, and those of the federations by the Secretary of State for Labor.

### *Industrial Social Committees*

Collaboration between employers and workers is compulsorily organized in establishments having at least 100 workers, by social committees, which include the head of the establishment and representatives of all classes of the personnel. The committees will not have any part in the management of the enterprise but will assist the management in settling all questions arising in regard to the work and the life of the personnel in the establishment; provide for an exchange of mutual information upon all questions concerning the social life of the personnel and of the group; and organize social-assistance measures. These committees are under the corporative authority and control of the local social committees. For enterprises having a small number of employees a social committee may be organized for a group of industries in the same area.

### *Social Committees of the Professional Groups*

Local, regional, and national social committees will be created for each professional group. The local social committees will have from 12 to 24 members, with equal representation of employers, workers and employees, and other classes. Each of these groups within a committee will elect a president, thus constituting a bureau over which each group president will preside in turn for a period of 8 months. Similar joint committees will be established for the regional and national groups.

The duties of the committees are of a professional and social nature. In the first case, the committees are empowered to deal with questions of wages and collective agreements, apprenticeship, reclassification, etc.; establishment of regulations relative to hiring and firing and to hygiene and safety. For each of the occupations, they also study and establish regulations governing the practice of a trade, occupational qualifications, and promotions. In the social field, the committees will be concerned with measures for promoting employment security and unemployment insurance, retirement insurance, assistance, family aid, and improvement of living conditions such as housing, gardens, sports, leisure-time activities, arts, general culture, etc. The committees will be under the general supervision of special corporative commissioners.

The committees are to represent their members legally before the public authorities in each area or region, and their decisions are enforceable unless rescinded by a committee in a higher scale or by the public authorities. The committees have civil personality and the right to sue in a court of justice; to acquire, without specific authorization, real and personal property; and to establish and manage all the organizations necessary to their activities.

The national committee of each group has general control of the group, coordinating and regularizing the activities of regional committees. It decrees or approves general regulations (notably those having to do with hygiene and safety), orients the social action of the group or the profession, and manages the institutions and funds which it considers should have a national character. The regional committee, operating under the instructions of the national committee, coordinates the activities of the local committees and manages the institutions and funds having a regional character. The local committee coordinates and controls the activities of the establishment committees.

The public authorities are represented on each national social committee by a Government commissioner appointed by the Secretary of State for Labor.

Interprofessional questions will be handled by social interprofessional committees established in each region, made up from the bureaus of the regional social committees. They may be consulted by the public authorities on general, professional, and social questions, and notably on the determination of the cost of living and the utilization of labor.

In each professional group or profession the necessary administrative expenses are to be covered by a contribution imposed on members of all classes. The funds thus obtained are divided among the social committees. The amount of the contribution and the division among the separate organizations is to be decided upon by the national social committee with the approval of the Secretaries of State for national economy and finance and for labor. The employer is responsible for the collection of the contributions which are retained from the wages of employees. These fees are separate from the professional contribution.

Each professional group is to establish a common corporative fund (*patrimoine*) to be exclusively used for the amelioration of the conditions of life of the members of the profession. This fund, which is the property of all the members of the profession, is to be managed by the local, regional, and national committees, between which it is divided by the national committee. It is normally raised by a tax on the profits of the enterprises of the profession and by gifts and legacies. No part of the fund may be used for administrative expenses nor to carry the costs of the social institutions.

In order to facilitate the operation of the social committees, a common headquarters will be established for all the members of each professional group, which will be used for corporative purposes but may not be used for political or commercial purposes.

### *Wage Provisions*

Wages of all members of the different professional groups will be fixed according to the following general principles:

A minimum basic wage will be fixed which will vary according to the place of employment and the local cost of living. The professional remuneration complements the basic wage and corresponds to the occupational qualifications of the individual, and varies according to the occupation and the place of employment. Supplementary payments may be added eventually, based on individual aptitude and output, notably for piece work. To the wages thus defined, supplements will be added for family charges. The minimum basic wage will be fixed by the Government, by region, Department, or locality, upon the advice of a superior wage committee in the Secretariat of State for Labor. The supplementary wage will be established as a coefficient of the basic wage. These coefficients will be established for each occupational classification. Agreements may be concluded between the State secretariats concerned and the organized professions in regard to the delegation of social power to these organizations, relative to insurance, retirement, unemployment allowances, etc. The State will share the cost of these activities in order to assist in the initial functioning of these institutions.

### *Labor Jurisdiction*

All the professional organizations must endeavor to prevent or conciliate any differences which may arise from the application of the legislation and of the social regulation of the professions. Disputes which cannot be avoided or conciliated will be brought before the trade councils or the justices of the peace, if individual disputes, or submitted to arbitration before the labor tribunals if collective disputes.

A regional labor tribunal will be formed in the jurisdiction of each court of appeal. These tribunals will consist of two magistrates and three members of the competent regional social committee. Recourse from the decisions of the regional tribunals may be had to the national labor tribunal, which will consist of three magistrates and four members of the competent national social committee. Members of the labor inspection service will be appointed by the Secretary of State for Labor, as Government commissioners, on both the national and the regional tribunals.

### *Transitory Provisions*

The formation of the syndicates, committees, and groups provided for in the new professional organization will involve the dissolution of the former unions, and of syndical and professional groups of all kinds.

Property belonging to these organizations will pass to the new syndical organizations and social committees, and will, so far as possible, be retained in the same enterprises, localities, or regions to which it has belonged. The former syndical organizations will be allowed to carry out administrative matters, pending an inventory of their properties and their inclusion in the new organizations.

A provisional organization committee will be appointed for each professional group to study and propose the local and regional areas to be served in each case by the syndical and corporative organizations, and the conditions under which the former syndicates, unions, and federations will be regrouped in the new organizations. Members of the provisional committees will be appointed by the Minister of State charged with the coordination of the new institutions and the Secretary of State for Labor.



### **COMPULSORY LABOR IN TURKISH MINES AND PUBLIC WORKS**

COMPULSORY labor was established in the Eregli Coal Basin in Turkey by legislation passed early in 1940, and an emergency decree published in June 1940 provided also for compulsory labor on public works such as the construction of roads, bridges, public grounds, and boat landings. A decree of September 27, 1941,<sup>1</sup> provided for compulsory service on all types of transportation and on lumbering operations and transportation in forests.

The purpose of the last-mentioned decree was to provide the necessary labor for the production of mine props to be used in the Eregli Coal Basin, as the Turkish Government wished to give special impetus to coal production. It will be applied in those parts of the country where there are forests which may be utilized for the production of mine props either at the present time or in the future. The persons affected by the legislation are the employees and workers under the State Forest Works, specialists in lumbering operations and the making of mine props, and all nationals who have the ability and are of the age to do such work.

The decree also provides for use of all means of transportation in the possession of persons subject to compulsory service, and of all land and sea transport suitable for transportation of props and construction materials in districts in which compulsory labor is in force.

Normal wages will be paid to workers mobilized for this service, and transportation services requisitioned for the work will be remunerated.

<sup>1</sup> Report from Earle C. Taylor, acting commercial attaché, United States Embassy at Istanbul.

The duration and periods of work will depend upon the requirements of the lumber operations, the families of the workers, and the conditions of production. The national requirements will receive first consideration, however, rather than the difficulties of individuals.

Persons subject to compulsory labor service and those employed in the transportation services, as well as contractors either with the State Forest Works or the Eregli mining operations, will be exempted from military service.

## *Migratory Labor*

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### **MIGRATION AND SETTLEMENT IN THE YAKIMA VALLEY, WASHINGTON**

DURING the past decade the migratory movement from the Great Plains was largest into the State of California, but significant numbers of migrants also went to the States of the Pacific Northwest. Migration into the Yakima Valley, Washington, was the subject of a study made in 1939 for the purpose of measuring the degree of success or lack of success met by former migrants of agricultural background in relocating in a new environment.<sup>1</sup> Yakima County is still an expanding area as regards number of farms and acreage in farms, but much of the increase in acreage has been in the use of nonarable land for pasture, and there has been a fairly persistent trend toward farms of less than 20 acres, particularly to units under 10 acres. The crops producing the greatest revenue are fruits and vegetables, and the fruit and crop-specialty farms in the county are small, specialized, and highly commercial.

The study covered 250 recently settled families with a farm background, omitting single persons and migratory families.

The county was found to be one of the fastest growing counties in the State during the past decade, the population having increased 27 percent from 1930 to 1940, according to the census reports. From 5,000 to 6,000 families residing in the county in 1939 were estimated to have moved into it from other States since 1930.

A school survey showed that the years 1934 to 1937 brought into the county a larger proportion of families with agricultural backgrounds than either the preceding or succeeding years, this influx of families coinciding with the "drought phase" of the migration into the Pacific Northwest. This increase in the population of the county threw an additional strain on the school system and on the system of relief. During much of the year the labor supply in the county had exceeded the demand, even prior to the migration of the 30's, and in 1939 in only 5-7 weeks during the year were all resident laborers fairly sure of finding jobs. These periods of employment occur during the cherry

<sup>1</sup> United States Department of Agriculture, Bureau of Agricultural Economics, in cooperation with Washington Agricultural Experiment Station. *Migration and Settlement on the Pacific Coast*, by Carl F. Reuss and Lloyd H. Fisher. Washington, 1941.

harvest, the hop harvest, and the apple harvest; during the rest of the harvest season the competition for jobs is intense. There is practically no chance for farm or industrial employment during the winter, so that nearly all resident farm laborers are unemployed for almost the entire winter.

In addition to the unemployment problem a serious health problem arising out of the migration is found in the housing situation. Over-crowding and poor sanitation are prevalent in the new settlements, and the poverty of recently settled families contributes to the health dangers both among these families and among the older residents.

Before their arrival in the State, 160 of the 250 families covered by the survey had operated farms either as owners or tenants. Half of the families estimated that they were worth \$2,500 or more at their most prosperous period, and one-fourth had been worth an estimated \$5,000 or more. About 14 percent reported their net worth at one time as having been \$10,000 or more; but an equal number, mainly the younger families first established during the depression period, reported that the net value of all possessions had never exceeded \$500.

### *Future Prospects*

In summing up the results of the study it is stated that the work opportunities in the county allow little optimism regarding the future prospects of settlers for adequate incomes from private employment. It was estimated that as early as 1936 the number of resident farm workers ranged from 4,000 to 6,000, whereas opportunities for full employment existed for not more than 500 persons; and since that year there has been an increase in resident laborers. There are few changes possible which could improve the work opportunities of resident laborers. With a return of prosperity conditions to agriculture there might be an increase in wage rates, and there is a possibility of lengthening the harvest seasons through the introduction of new crops. It is not believed, however, that these changes would significantly alter the incomes of persons dependent on agricultural labor, since no conceivable change in wage rates could convert seasonal earnings into an adequate annual income, and the development of new crops such as asparagus, which has been recently introduced, would not provide enough additional work to remedy the situation.

Essentially, the problem arises out of the conflict between a pattern of production that is seasonal in nature and a labor supply that is residentially stable. At present the conflict is reconciled through the medium of public assistance during the inevitable periods of unemployment. It would be idle to observe that the labor requirements of agriculture in the Yakima Valley are best met by migratory labor. The population with which the study is dealing is now a settled population and shows little inclination to accept the disadvantages of transient life. Furthermore, there is serious doubt that net earnings from agricultural labor would be significantly increased by greater mobility. The costs of such employment are extremely high.

## *Education and Training*

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### **BRITISH PLAN FOR TRAINING THE DISABLED<sup>1</sup>**

TERMS of a plan for the training and resettlement of disabled persons have been outlined by the British Ministry of Labor and National Service. Coverage does not extend to the whole problem of resettling disabled persons, as the needs of the more severely disabled, for example, may be of a specialized nature. Under an arrangement with the departments responsible for the various types of hospitals, the Ministry of Labor has arranged to have its representatives visit the disabled while they are still being hospitalized. By interview, the individual requirements of each patient will be determined, taking capacities into account. Those who have not been interviewed in the hospitals may apply at any local office of the Ministry.

Disabled persons are to be assisted in finding suitable employment. When training is needed, it will be furnished under the existing system used in preparing persons for munitions work, and a new scheme will be established for the benefit of the disabled. The latter plan is described below.

#### *Eligibility*

Persons of either sex are eligible, provided they are over the age of 16, regardless of the cause of disablement. Coverage is not limited to those disabled as a result of the present war. The plan is intended to aid those who are unfit, by reason of disablement, to resume their normal occupations, and also those who are similarly handicapped in obtaining satisfactory employment. "Some degree of preference may be given to those whose disablement is due to war service or to enemy action," the Ministry of Labor states.

Foreigners who have suffered disablement since the beginning of the war are eligible, whether or not their disability is the result of enemy action.

#### *Training*

Training is to be provided for occupations connected with munitions work; and for other occupations specially authorized for the purpose of the scheme, regarding which announcements will be made from

<sup>1</sup> Great Britain. Ministry of Labor Gazette (London), November 1941 (p. 212).

time to time. The occupations connected with munitions work are draftsmanship, fitting, instrument making, machine operating, electric welding, oxyacetylene welding, electrical installation, inspection and viewing, light lorry driving, garage mechanic, sheet-metal working and panel-beating, and radio repairing and testing. The courses of training will be similar to those already given, with modifications to suit disabled persons and with adaptation for particular types of disablement.

Courses are to be given at certain Government centers administered by the Ministry of Labor and National Service; at special centers consisting of institutions having special experience in training the disabled for industrial employment; at technical colleges and other similar institutions as soon as the necessary facilities are available; and in industrial establishments under arrangements which it is hoped can be made with employers to train disabled persons.

The length of the training period will vary according to occupation and nature of disability. It is anticipated that the maximum will be 26 weeks in the majority of cases, but this period may be extended as necessary. Provision is to be made for medical supervision to insure that the training is suited to the disablement.

Applicants for training will be informed through local offices of the Ministry of Labor as to the date when training will start. Every effort will be made to arrange for training promptly and as near as possible to the applicant's home. Those living in areas where there are no training facilities must be ready to leave home to secure training.

### *Allowances to Trainees*

The Ministry of Labor and National Service will bear the cost of the scheme. Weekly allowances to disabled trainees are as follows:

Trainees aged—		<i>Males</i>	<i>Females</i>
21 years and over—shillings	42	33	
20 years—do—	33	31	
19 years—do—	30	28	
18 years—do—	23	21	
16 and 17 years—do—	17	15	

Each trainee is to receive a meal (dinner), or 5s. weekly in lieu of food; daily traveling expenses when necessary; and dependents' allowances of 7s. 6d. weekly for a wife (and sometimes other adult dependent) and 3s. a week for each child.

If a disabled person is trained away from the home area and continues to maintain his former home, he will receive an additional allowance based on the lodging rate in the place where he is trained. This allowance is normally 21s. a week. Trainees aged 16 to 18 who live away from home will be paid the lodging rate plus a sum for pocket money. The scale described will be paid without regard to any pension, allowance, or other payment for disability.

## *Labor Organizations*

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### LABOR ORGANIZATIONS IN CANADA, 1940

TRADE-UNIONS in Canada may be branches of organizations in the United States with members in both countries, or may limit membership to the Dominion. The most important unions with members in both the United States and Canada are the 4 railroad brotherhoods and the unions affiliated with the Trades and Labor Congress of Canada or the Canadian Congress of Labor. "Only the Canadian members of international unions are represented in these Congresses, but both Canadian and American members of the international unions affiliated with the Trades and Labor Congress are represented in the American Federation of Labor, and those of the international unions affiliated with the Canadian Congress of Labor are represented in the Congress of Industrial Organizations." The Confederation of Catholic Workers of Canada, with its membership confined mainly to the Province of Quebec, and the Canadian Federation of Labor are the two principal central labor organizations with only Dominion members.

Members of trade-unions in Canada at the close of 1940 numbered 365,544—a gain of 6,577 as compared with the total for 1939, according to returns made to the Canadian Department of Labor.<sup>1</sup> The peak membership in labor organizations in Canada was reported in 1937—a total of 384,619.

The international unions (those operating both in the Dominion and in the United States) included, in 1940, the Canadian members of 95 organizations, the same number as in 1939. These organizations had 2,078 branches in Canada in 1940, with a combined membership of 226,969—an increase of 10,308 over the previous year.

The wholly Canadian organizations (including the National Catholic Unions) numbered 31—2 more than in 1939. These had 1,102 branches, with a total membership of 117,548, a decrease of 5,338.

Independent units numbered 88 in 1940, an increase of 3, and the membership reported by 78 units was 21,027, a gain of 1,607 as compared with 19,420 reported by 74 units in 1939.

According to the latest estimate of population (June 1, 1940), trade-unionists in 1939 represented 3.20 percent of the total population in Canada; adding

<sup>1</sup> Canada. Department of Labor. Thirtieth Annual Report on Labor Organization in Canada (for the calendar year 1940). Ottawa, 1941.

121,153, the number of members in the non-trade-union associations, the organized wage earners in the Dominion at the close of 1940 represented 4.26 percent of the population.

The distribution of the 365,544 trade-union members by industry groups in 1940 was as follows:

	<i>Members</i>	<i>Percent of total</i>
All industry groups.....	365, 544	100. 00
Mining and quarrying.....	28, 641	7. 84
Building.....	40, 479	11. 07
Metal.....	39, 800	10. 89
Printing and paper making.....	25, 835	7. 07
Clothing, boots and shoes.....	29, 348	8. 03
Railroad employees.....	83, 142	22. 74
Other transportation and navigation.....	29, 712	8. 13
Public employees, personal service, and amusement.....	39, 807	10. 89
All other trades and general labor.....	48, 780	13. 34

### *Trade-Union Benefits*

Benefits paid in 1940 by 7 of the 31 Canadian organizations totaled \$62,974.82, an increase of \$50,486.18 over the amount reported for the same number of organizations in the previous year.

Payments by international unions for trade-union benefits in both Canada and the United States in 1940 aggregated \$20,262,021, an increase of \$391,148 over the amount reported to the Dominion Department of Labor for the preceding year.

In addition to the benefits paid by the central bodies, 831 branches of Canadian, international, and independent unions disbursed \$273,509 in benefits to their own members in 1940. The amounts paid in the various kinds of benefits by the international and local unions is shown in the accompanying statement.

	<i>International unions</i>	<i>Locals</i>
Total benefits.....	\$20, 262, 021	\$273, 509
Death benefits.....	11, 808, 601	32, 151
Unemployment benefits.....	<sup>1</sup> 518, 569	34, 313
Strike benefits.....	859, 665	23, 201
Sickness and accident benefits.....	1, 660, 571	129, 580
Other benefits.....	<sup>2</sup> 5, 414, 615	54, 264

<sup>1</sup> Includes traveling benefits.

<sup>2</sup> Includes old-age pensions.

**UNION MEMBERSHIP IN CHILE, END OF 1940<sup>1</sup>**

DURING the course of 1940 the number of industrial labor unions in Chile increased by 16, bringing the total number up to 629, while the number of members of such unions decreased by 4,327, to 100,940 members. During the year the number of craft unions increased by 165, while the membership increased by 8,614, giving a total of 79,557 members of all craft unions. To organize a craft union it is necessary that at least 25 persons having the same profession or occupation form a group which will represent them in signing collective agreements and in furthering the economic interests of the profession.

Statistics on the number of industrial and craft unions and their membership at the end of 1940 and previous years follow:

Industrial unions:	<i>Organizations</i>	<i>Members</i>
1937-----	315	70, 913
1938-----	329	78, 989
1939-----	613	105, 267
1940-----	629	100, 940

Craft unions:	<i>Organizations</i>	<i>Members</i>
1937-----	496	47, 265
1938-----	599	46, 983
1939-----	1, 094	68, 171
1940-----	1, 259	79, 557

<sup>1</sup> Data are from Estadística Chilena (Santiago), August 1941, quoted in report from Sheldon T. Mills, second secretary of the United States Embassy at Santiago. Detailed statistics and a summary of Chilean labor unions, as of December 31, 1940, were published in Revista del Trabajo (Santiago), February-March 1941.

# *Industrial Disputes*

## **RECENT STRIKES**

WITH the declaration of war in December 1941 came a substantial decrease in strike activity. Immediately after the attack on Pearl Harbor, many strikes then in progress were called off, and a large number of threatened strikes were averted even though in some cases strike votes had already been taken and the dates for stoppages of work had been set. Labor organizations in numerous localities passed resolutions pledging full support to the Government in its war effort, and in many cases pledged that there should be no strikes interfering with the production of war materials. Such action was taken by numerous local unions, city and State councils, and international unions.

The Bureau's preliminary estimates indicate 175 new strikes in December, as compared with 300 new strikes in the preceding month. About 35,000 workers were involved in the new strikes. There was a total of 500,000 man-days of idleness during all strikes in progress in the month. Of the estimated total of 175 strikes beginning in December, preliminary information indicates that nearly half began prior to the declaration of war on December 8. Those which took place after December 8 were, on the whole, small strikes.

There were 15 percent as many workers involved in new strikes in December as in the preceding month, and the idleness during all strikes in December was 34 percent as great as in November.

The man-days of idleness during all strikes in December amounted to about 0.08 percent of the total time worked, as compared with 0.24 percent in November.

Comparative figures for December and other specified periods are shown in the following table.

*Strikes in November and December 1941 Compared with Averages for Preceding Periods*

Item	Decem- ber 1941 <sup>1</sup>	Novem- ber 1941 <sup>1</sup>	Decem- ber 1940	Averages for 5-year period, 1935-39	
				Decem- ber	Novem- ber
Number of strikes beginning in month.....	175	300	147	127	185
Number of workers involved in new strikes.....	35,000	235,000	42,615	31,899	52,738
Number of man-days idle during all strikes in progress during month.....	500,000	1,450,000	458,314	859,534	1,229,731

<sup>1</sup> Preliminary estimates.

STRIKES IN OCTOBER 1941<sup>1</sup>

THE amount of idleness during strikes in October was about the same as in September, although there were slightly fewer strikes in October and the number of workers involved in new strikes was substantially lower. Detailed information was obtained by the Bureau on 405 strikes, involving nearly 199,000 workers, which began in October. About 142,000 workers were involved in 193 additional strikes which continued into October from the preceding month, making a total of over 340,000 workers involved in 598 strikes in progress during the month. The idleness in October during these strikes amounted to about 1,889,000 man-days.

TABLE 1.—*Trend of Strikes, 1935 to October 1941*

Year and month	Number of strikes			Workers involved in strikes			Man-days idle during month or year
	Beginning in month or year	In progress during month	Ending in month	Beginning in month or year	In progress during month	Ending in month	
1935	2,014	—	—	1,117,213	—	—	15,456,337
1936	2,172	—	—	788,648	—	—	13,901,956
1937	4,740	—	—	1,860,621	—	—	28,424,857
1938	2,772	—	—	688,376	—	—	9,148,273
1939	2,613	—	—	1,170,962	—	—	17,812,219
1940	2,508	—	—	576,988	—	—	6,700,872
<i>1940</i>							
January	128	222	124	26,937	41,284	32,743	246,674
February	172	270	153	29,509	38,050	17,252	289,992
March	178	295	187	22,433	43,231	29,503	386,981
April	228	336	214	39,481	53,119	29,226	441,866
May	239	361	239	53,231	77,124	59,203	665,688
June	214	336	190	38,542	56,403	36,559	484,007
July	244	390	227	63,126	82,970	54,100	585,651
August	231	394	253	61,356	90,226	47,199	706,308
September	253	394	242	65,362	108,389	72,523	780,570
October	267	419	253	71,997	107,863	68,730	915,014
November	207	373	243	62,399	101,532	82,571	739,807
December	147	277	168	42,615	61,576	43,605	458,314
<i>1941<sup>1</sup></i>							
January	232	341	217	91,562	109,533	53,915	659,285
February	253	377	230	69,769	125,387	64,909	1,129,556
March	338	485	303	116,320	176,798	122,848	1,553,860
April	395	577	381	510,879	564,829	468,390	7,106,126
May	450	646	442	324,544	420,983	339,234	2,182,603
June	340	544	365	141,142	222,891	144,434	1,468,856
July	413	592	385	140,155	218,612	133,518	1,305,136
August	430	637	451	208,311	293,405	238,694	1,756,377
September	423	609	416	289,738	344,449	202,351	1,885,224
October	405	598	426	198,757	340,855	234,422	1,888,644

<sup>1</sup> Succeeding reports may show slightly different figures for the various months due to corrections and additions made as later information is received.

The largest strikes in progress during October, in terms of number of workers involved, were the "captive" coal-mine strike<sup>2</sup> which started in September and was resumed in October after expiration of a 30-day truce; a strike of 25,000 anthracite miners in eastern Pennsyl-

<sup>1</sup> The Bureau's statistics exclude strikes lasting less than 1 day or involving fewer than 6 workers.

<sup>2</sup> See *Monthly Labor Review*, January 1942, p. 94.

vania which began September 9 and continued until October 8; a wage strike of 20,000 Alabama coal miners from October 20 to 24; two short strikes in the steel industry (one at the Gary, Ind., works of Carnegie Illinois Steel Corporation and the other at the plants of the Great Lakes Steel Corporation in the Detroit area); a 1-day strike at the B. F. Goodrich Co. in Akron, Ohio; and a strike of welders on the west coast.

Slightly more than 1 percent of the employed wage earners in all industries were involved in strikes during October (table 2). In anthracite mining nearly 37 percent, and in bituminous-coal mining over 18 percent, of the employed workers were involved in strikes during the month. In the rubber products industries nearly 11 percent were involved.

TABLE 2.—*Workers Involved and Man-Days Idle During Strikes in October 1941, Compared with Total Workers and Available Work*

Industry or group	Percent of em- ployed workers <sup>1</sup> invol- ved in strikes during October 1941	Man-days idle during strikes compared to total man-days of work avail- able <sup>2</sup>		Man-days idle during strikes per em- ployed worker, January- October 1941
		October 1941	January- October 1941	
	1.20	Percent 0.29	Percent 0.35	Days 0.8
All industries				
All manufacturing groups				
Iron, steel, and their products excluding machinery	1.93	.52	.53	1.1
Machinery, excluding transportation equipment	4.86	.89	.53	1.1
Transportation equipment	.67	.23	.57	1.5
Nonferrous metals and their products	4.09	.71	1.05	2.3
Lumber and allied products	1.64	.78	.52	1.1
Stone, clay, and glass products	1.98	.88	.76	1.6
Textiles and their products	1.02	.42	.83	1.8
Fabrics	.99	.39	.36	.8
Wearing apparel	.90	.30	.33	.7
Leather and its manufactures	1.29	.62	.46	1.0
Food and kindred products	1.14	.43	.28	.6
Tobacco manufactures	1.28	.62	.46	1.0
Paper and printing	.69	.19	.52	1.1
Chemicals and allied products	.40	.23	.16	.3
Rubber products	1.26	.57	.31	.7
	10.83	.49	.46	1.0
Building and construction		.39	.07	.5
Mining:				
Anthracite	36.95	3.47	3.32	5.8
Bituminous coal	18.11	3.11	7.82	14.8
Metalliferous	.40	.06	.17	.4
Quarrying and nonmetallic	0	0	.07	.2

<sup>1</sup> "Employed workers" as used here includes all workers except those in occupations and professions where strikes rarely, if ever, occur. In general, the term "employed workers" includes all employees except the following groups: Government workers, agricultural wage earners on farms employing less than 6, managerial and supervisory employees, and certain groups which, because of the nature of their work, cannot or do not strike, such as teachers, clergymen, and domestic servants. Self-employed and unemployed persons are, of course, excluded.

<sup>2</sup> "Total man-days of work available" was estimated for purposes of this table by multiplying the total employed workers in each industry or group by the number of days worked by most employees in the respective groups.

The total idleness during strikes in October amounted to 0.29 percent of the available working time. The proportion varied a

great deal as between the various industry groups for which information is available, running to more than 3 percent in coal mining. In the 10-month period January through October 1941 the idleness during strikes amounted to 0.35 percent of the available working time with the greatest proportions in bituminous-coal mining (7.82 percent), anthracite mining (3.32 percent), and transportation equipment manufacturing (1.05 percent).

During the first 10 months of the year the idleness during all strikes amounted to about eight-tenths of a working day per employed worker.<sup>3</sup> In bituminous-coal mining there were nearly 15 man-days of idleness per worker employed and in anthracite mining there were nearly 6. In quarrying and nonmetallic mining, on the other hand, the idleness amounted to only two-tenths of a working day per employed worker.

### *Industries Affected*

The greatest amount of idleness during strikes in any one industry group in October was in mining (371,000 man-days), caused principally by the three coal-mining strikes referred to on page 413. There were 255,000 man-days of idleness in the iron and steel industries, 186,000 in transportation-equipment manufacturing, and 167,000 in the textile industries (table 3).

There were 54,620 workers involved in new strikes in the iron and steel industries (a larger number than in any other industry group), 33,723 in transportation-equipment manufacturing, 26,397 in mining, and 16,240 in the rubber industries.

TABLE 3.—*Strikes in October 1941, by Industry, with Comparative Man-Day Figures for the Preceding 2 Years*

Industry	October 1941			Number of man-days idle during the 12-month period ending with—	
	Strikes beginning in month		Number of man-days idle during month		
	Number	Workers involved	October 1941	October 1940	
All industries	405	198,757	1,688,644	22,029,011	7,551,586
Iron, steel, and their products, excluding machinery	42	54,620	254,791	1,397,577	376,564
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	14	43,833	109,456	462,374	114,312
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets				24,458	249
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	1	100	1,200	55,639	40,482
Cutlery (not including silver and plated cutlery), and edge tools				1,143	16,316
Forgings, iron and steel				1,134	30,785
Hardware	3	562	5,154	12,479	5,381
Plumbers' supplies and fixtures	1	18	2,553	73,917	27,832
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	4	1,070	6,316	80,869	23,428
Stoves				8,130	84,308
Structural and ornamental metal work	2	1,573	2,498	34,310	17,142
Tin cans and other tinware	2	289	68,437	143,297	22,200
Tools (not including edge tools, machine tools, files and saws)					11,662
Wire and wire products	6	1,517	26,587	178,078	10,074
Other	9	5,658	22,183	189,085	77,248

<sup>3</sup> See footnote 1 to table 2.

TABLE 3.—*Strikes in October 1941, by Industry, with Comparative Man-Day Figures for the Preceding 2 Years—Continued*

Industry	October 1941			Number of man-days idle during the 12-month period ending with—	
	Strikes beginning in month		Number of man-days idle during month		
	Number	Workers involved	October 1941	October 1940	
<b>Machinery, excluding transportation equipment</b>	29	6,322	99,318	2,236,052	744,194
Agricultural implements	3	777	10,901	493,675	18,007
Cash registers, adding machines, and typewriters				88,691	153
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	7	1,493	47,714	546,453	289,150
Engines, turbines, tractors, and water wheels				24,806	32,634
Foundry and machine-shop products	9	1,267	15,664	734,999	264,286
Machine tools (power driven)	3	802	2,406	116,852	7,898
Radios and phonographs	3	686	1,909	55,487	19,748
Textile machinery and parts				4,206	
Other	4	1,297	20,724	170,883	112,318
<b>Transportation equipment</b>	20	33,723	185,917	2,271,379	1,284,521
Aircraft	4	1,974	8,344	132,855	1,402
Automobiles, bodies and parts	5	1,450	59,337	1,182,445	1,154,530
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad (including repair shops)	2	1,307	5,355	218,299	73,874
Locomotives				761	1,140
Shipbuilding	9	28,992	112,120	729,730	46,527
Other				6,910	7,888
<b>Nonferrous metals and their products</b>	13	4,350	85,735	452,374	217,860
Aluminum manufactures	1	225	2,015	97,692	2,706
Brass, bronze, and copper products	4	3,555	53,102	138,302	2,544
Clocks, watches, and other time-recording devices				33,829	11
Jewelry				5,687	10,404
Lighting equipment	1	9	63	48,456	5,754
Silverware and plated ware	1	50	180	32,164	24,295
Smelting and refining—copper, lead, and zinc				2,710	69,306
Stamped and enameled ware	3	395	6,423	52,024	46,818
Other	3	116	3,952	41,510	55,822
<b>Lumber and allied products</b>	29	8,663	146,942	1,357,897	649,058
Furniture	10	2,726	60,731	338,915	198,644
Millwork and planing	5	3,123	24,068	117,341	78,837
Sawmills and logging camps	3	722	22,295	775,094	237,847
Other	11	2,002	39,848	156,347	133,730
<b>Stone, clay, and glass products</b>	12	2,584	34,211	635,481	205,387
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	2	377	5,741	173,046	60,994
Cement				1,587	19,745
Glass	5	1,485	7,492	116,318	63,750
Marble, granite, slate, and other products				190	866
Pottery	2	410	8,871	116,720	14,590
Other	3	312	10,520	209,462	50,905
<b>Textiles and their products</b>	33	7,281	167,464	1,530,699	698,490
Fabrics	14	3,866	80,063	891,407	241,280
Carpets and rugs	2	601	4,405	6,429	3,267
Cotton goods	3	1,469	33,726	380,961	91,837
Cotton small wares				1,123	810
Dyeing and finishing textiles	1	154	5,502	45,202	23,369
Silk and rayon goods	1	9	36	60,674	64,583
Woolen and worsted goods	3	1,200	16,415	222,809	12,604
Other	4	433	19,979	174,209	44,810
<b>Wearing apparel</b>	19	3,415	87,401	630,202	457,210
Clothing, men's	1	31	4,996	28,904	23,354
Clothing, women's	6	661	5,226	146,460	219,819
Corsets and allied garments				35,336	46,585
Men's furnishings	1	217	4,557	36,774	1,785
Hats, caps, and millinery	2	43	2,120	16,582	48,565
Shirts and collars	1	139	2,693	57,704	3,474
Hosiery	2	647	15,506	114,767	80,752
Knit goods	4	1,244	14,842	185,604	55,733
Other	2	433	2,125	5,912	22,688
<b>Leather and its manufactures</b>	10	2,921	31,897	200,225	124,504
Boots and shoes	2	535	7,103	107,064	38,952
Leather	1	200	3,212	47,391	15,356
Other leather goods	7	2,186	21,512	45,770	70,192

TABLE 3.—*Strikes in October 1941, by Industry, with Comparative Man-Day Figures for the Preceding 2 Years—Continued*

Industry	October 1941			Number of man-days idle during the 12-month period ending with—	
	Strikes beginning in month		Number of man-days idle during month	October 1941	October 1940
	Number	Workers involved			
<b>Food and kindred products</b>					
Baking	26	7,676	144,016	943,260	130,500
Beverages	7	5,338	75,476	236,919	29,665
Butter	2	97	1,785	25,025	3,572
Canning and preserving	4	267	5,129	129,398	44,944
Confectionery	3	153	12,940	57,480	13,400
Flour and grain mills	1	21	2,475	47,461	3,215
Ice cream				901	
Slaughtering and meat packing	3	54	23,295	192,527	22,729
Sugar refining, cane				160,899	
Other	6	1,746	22,916	90,234	12,411
<b>Tobacco manufactures</b>					
Chewing and smoking tobacco and snuff	3	638	4,052	99,880	80,809
Cigars	2	318	866	96,694	18
Cigarettes	1	321	3,186	3,186	80,791
<b>Paper and printing</b>					
Boxes, paper	11	9,225	36,158	226,639	118,332
Paper and pulp	2	287	1,067	33,597	39,298
Printing and publishing:					
Book and job	4	1,551	23,460	34,000	12,612
Newspapers and periodicals	4	117	1,301	83,352	37,186
Other					
<b>Chemicals and allied products</b>					
Chemicals	10	1,991	64,719	336,772	172,888
Cottonseed—oil, cake, and meal			30,400	170,933	14,704
Druggists' preparations	2	140	1,720	3,141	12,845
Explosives	1	230	2,760	3,623	1,010
Fertilizers				6,082	3,033
Paints and varnishes				1,566	401
Petroleum refining	3	838	18,279	41,741	10,578
Rayon and allied products	1	375	2,406	7,577	9,747
Soap					85,000
Other	3	408	9,154	101,775	35,070
<b>Rubber products</b>					
Rubber boots and shoes	2	16,240	16,856	158,585	83,703
Rubber tires and inner tubes				19,753	690
Other rubber goods	1	16,212	16,212	68,684	67,268
1	28	644	644	70,148	15,745
<b>Miscellaneous manufacturing</b>					
Electric light, power, and manufactured gas	24	2,700	30,407	315,941	200,421
Broom and brush	1	30	480	12,679	2,356
Furriers and fur factories	1	47	470	10,820	1,355
Other	1	30	570	9,648	33,663
21	2,563	28,887	28,887	282,794	163,047
<b>Extraction of minerals</b>					
Coal mining, anthracite	9	26,397	370,753	6,648,388	321,436
Coal mining, bituminous	1	606	57,329	429,344	107,419
Metallic mining	5	25,441	312,300	6,174,987	197,463
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	3	350	1,124	31,178	11,942
Crude petroleum producing				7,582	3,220
Other				2,504	
				2,793	1,392
<b>Transportation and communication</b>					
Water transportation	19	3,249	43,760	389,975	831,851
Motortruck transportation	3	213	1,153	74,034	383,885
Motorbus transportation	11	1,500	15,792	162,800	175,776
Taxicabs and miscellaneous	1	154	5,662	67,247	12,370
Electric railroad				24,541	241,065
Steam railroad	1	790	19,300	35,274	779
Telephone and telegraph	2	331	1,491	21,203	568
Radio broadcasting and transmitting	1	171	362	2,577	16,594
Other				532	814
				1,767	
<b>Trade</b>					
Wholesale	50	7,430	96,618	985,701	408,177
Retail	14	2,554	27,473	149,524	90,066
	36	4,876	69,145	836,177	318,111

TABLE 3.—*Strikes in October 1941, by Industry, with Comparative Man-Day Figures for the Preceding 2 Years—Continued*

Industry	October 1941			Number of man-days idle during the 12-month period ending with—	
	Strikes beginning in month		Number of man-days idle during month		
	Number	Workers involved	October 1941	October 1940	
<b>Domestic and personal service</b>					
Hotels, restaurants, and boarding houses	19	2,808	59,863	296,111	136,551
Personal service, barbers, beauty parlors	11	2,152	41,940	168,255	63,503
Laundries	2	232	10,919	46,667	3,562
Dyeing, cleaning, and pressing	3	84	504	53,415	27,866
Elevator and maintenance workers (when not attached to specific industry)	2	103	765	9,033	38,341
Other	1	35	5,645	17,973	2,976
				768	303
<b>Professional service</b>					
Recreation and amusement	2	89	251	37,659	24,098
Professional	1	81	243	26,206	19,682
Semiprofessional, attendants, and helpers	1	8	8	640	1,346
				10,753	3,068
<b>Building and construction</b>					
Buildings, exclusive of PWA	33	6,255	30,000	944,632	453,498
All other construction (bridges, docks, etc., and PWA buildings)	28	5,618	25,927	890,528	372,271
	5	637	4,073	54,104	81,227
<b>Agriculture and fishing</b>					
Agriculture	2	63	483	398,895	244,394
Fishing	2	63	483	304,179	95,791
				4,716	148,603
<b>WPA and relief projects</b>					
Other nonmanufacturing industries	7	733	4,503	132,662	32,098

*States Affected*

There was more idleness during strikes in Pennsylvania (292,000 man-days) in October than in any other State, largely because of the coal-mining disputes referred to previously (table 4). New York had nearly 275,000 man-days of idleness, the largest amounts resulting from strikes of bakery drivers in New York City and shipyard workers in Brooklyn. Michigan had over 211,000 man-days of idleness, the largest amount resulting from the strike at the Great Lakes Steel Corporation in the Detroit area. Alabama had 159,000, due largely to the strike of coal miners.

There were more than 27,000 workers involved in new strikes in Indiana during October, 26,500 in Alabama, 25,900 in Ohio, and 25,100 in New York. The greatest number of new strikes in any State was 90 in New York. Pennsylvania had 44, California 31, and Ohio 29.

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TABLE 4.—*Strikes in October 1941, by States, with Comparative Man-Day Figures for the Preceding 2 Years*

State	Strikes beginning in October 1941		Number of man-days idle during October	Number of man-days idle during the 12-month period ending with—		
	Number	Workers involved		October 1941	October 1940	
All States	1 405	198,757	1,888,644	22,029,011	7,551,586	
Alabama	13	26,518	159,496	811,555	32,298	
Arizona	1	150	600	18,173	2,385	
Arkansas	2	2,839	10,979	51,126	83,157	
California	31	9,667	88,038	1,761,754	604,718	
Colorado				55,233	2,263	
Connecticut	5	606	8,764	263,210	73,141	
Delaware	1	150	300	54,773	10,743	
District of Columbia	1	23	161	26,052	13,582	
Florida	4	121	1,438	44,737	94,836	
Georgia	3	2,590	18,702	78,448	38,712	
Idaho	1	82	565	10,706	2,615	
Illinois	23	5,619	125,306	1,533,660	468,907	
Indiana	14	27,452	68,080	659,743	250,802	
Iowa	3	295	3,437	234,101	20,706	
Kansas	2	230	1,023	24,598	2,800	
Kentucky	7	813	23,426	736,643	30,445	
Louisiana	4	564	11,674	66,687	38,198	
Maine	1	14	168	44,870	2,423	
Maryland	4	667	5,329	162,060	138,233	
Massachusetts	4	763	24,729	483,084	257,465	
Michigan	27	16,323	211,386	1,870,590	1,250,748	
Minnesota	4	115	3,579	82,264	106,806	
Mississippi	2	3,638	10,448	20,819	21,059	
Missouri	11	1,409	27,953	281,854	287,154	
Montana	2	15	36	7,495	7,179	
Nebraska				3,929	1,682	
Nevada				1,409	1,056	
New Hampshire	2	393	1,893	16,808	5,916	
New Jersey	28	5,763	121,087	973,880	372,088	
New Mexico				26,260	6,276	
New York	90	25,095	274,834	2,131,257	1,220,005	
North Carolina	5	1,916	16,027	127,583	86,992	
North Dakota				1,809	1,156	
Ohio	29	25,921	142,265	1,249,349	292,424	
Oklahoma	2	332	647	9,258	19,006	
Oregon	4	530	6,226	188,840	103,717	
Pennsylvania	44	19,445	292,105	3,914,433	794,895	
Rhode Island	2	584	4,454	80,930	17,794	
South Carolina	1	184	396	34,012	54,817	
South Dakota			2,216	6,052	241	
Tennessee	11	1,652	53,247	435,068	52,731	
Texas	8	3,657	23,432	149,012	73,976	
Utah	2	111	1,266	42,916	1,837	
Vermont			621	2,537	8,901	
Virginia	4	1,343	6,350	219,567	145,200	
Washington	7	10,032	67,545	759,149	280,184	
West Virginia	6	950	62,988	1,734,898	40,279	
Wisconsin	4	186	5,428	531,130	119,708	
Wyoming				4,600	150	

<sup>1</sup>The sum of this column is more than 405. This is due to the fact that 10 strikes which extended across State lines have been counted in this table as separate strikes in each State affected, with the proper allocation of number of workers involved and man-days idle.

### Number of Workers Involved

There was an average of 568 workers per strike in the 3,679 disputes beginning in the first 10 months of the year. The average per strike in those beginning in the month of October was 491 workers. Slightly

more than half (52 percent) of the strikes beginning in the 10-month period involved less than 100 workers each, 40 percent involved between 100 and 1,000 workers each, and 8 percent involved 1,000 or more workers (table 5). There were 10,000 or more workers involved in each of 27 strikes in the latter group, four of which were new strikes beginning in October.

**TABLE 5.—Strikes Beginning in the First 10 Months of 1941, by Industry Group and Number of Workers Involved**

Industry group	Total	Number of strikes in which the number of workers involved was—							
		6 and under 20	20 and under 100	100 and under 250	250 and under 500	500 and under 1,000	1,000 and under 5,000	5,000 and under 10,000	10,000 and over
All industries:									
Number	3,679	593	1,309	754	425	301	249	21	27
Percent	100.0	16.1	35.5	20.5	11.6	8.2	6.8	0.6	0.7
<i>Manufacturing</i>									
Iron, steel, and their products, excluding machinery	312	13	67	76	63	43	40	5	5
Machinery, excluding transportation equipment	262	16	94	47	46	36	21	1	1
Transportation equipment	156	4	24	28	18	32	37	7	6
Nonferrous metals and their products	108	17	33	25	16	5	11	1	
Lumber and allied products	250	24	98	80	32	18	6		1
Stone, clay, and glass products	121	11	48	32	13	8	9		
Textiles and their products	425	64	146	83	60	40	31	1	
Leather and its manufactures	79	7	30	12	15	13	2		
Food and kindred products	227	42	87	44	22	19	12	1	
Tobacco manufactures	8			2	1	1	4		
Paper and printing	116	30	40	29	11	4	2		
Chemicals and allied products	72	8	31	14	11	4	4		
Rubber products	39	3	8	6	7	10	3	1	1
Miscellaneous manufacturing	143	28	58	33	13	8	3		
<i>Nonmanufacturing</i>									
Extraction of minerals	122	5	27	17	22	21	21	1	8
Transportation and communication	207	39	90	50	10	11	6	1	
Trade	349	119	156	40	21	5	8		
Domestic and personal service	178	58	73	31	4	6	6		
Professional service	24	7	13	2	1	1			
Building and construction	342	68	132	74	34	13	14	2	5
Agriculture and fishing	23	1	11	6	1	2	2		
WPA and relief projects	4	2	1	1					
Other nonmanufacturing industries	103	27	42	22	4	1	7		

### *Causes of Strikes*

About 37 percent of the workers involved in the October strikes were concerned primarily with issues of wages and hours; 29 percent were striking primarily over union-organization issues; and 34 percent were involved in strikes over plant working conditions, questions of jurisdiction, union rivalry, or other grievances (table 6). Included in the latter group were two rather large stoppages. One was at the Gary, Ind., works of the Carnegie-Illinois Steel Corporation, where the cranemen struck because of the company's discontinuing the

work of relief cranemen after the hot weather, resulting in a reduction of force. The other, a 1-day strike at the B. F. Goodrich Co. plants in Akron, Ohio, was a protest against the company's failure to discharge two employees accused of beating a union organizer near the Goodrich plant at Oaks, Pa.

About 52 percent of the new strikes in October were primarily over union-organization issues, and 35 percent were disputes over wage-and-hour issues, principally wage increases.

In the 10-month period, January to October 1941, half of the 3,679 strikes, including 33½ percent of the total workers involved, were due principally to the issues of union recognition, closed or union shop, discrimination, or other union-organization matters; 36 percent of the strikes, including 49 percent of the workers involved, were primarily over wage-and-hour issues; and 14 percent of the strikes, including 17 percent of the workers involved, were over various grievances, including questions of jurisdiction, union rivalry, sympathy, and many specific grievances over conditions of work.

TABLE 6.—*Strikes Beginning in October 1941, by Major Issues Involved, with Cumulative Figures for the Period, January—October 1941*

Major issue	Strikes beginning in October 1941				Strikes beginning in the period, January—October 1941			
	Number	Per-cent of total	Workers involved	Per-cent of total	Number	Per-cent of total	Workers involved	Per-cent of total
All issues.....	405	100.0	198,757	100.0	3,679	100.0	2,091,177	100.0
Wages and hours.....								
Wage increase.....	141	34.8	74,724	37.6	1,326	36.0	1,032,408	49.3
Wage decrease.....	126	31.1	66,890	33.6	1,158	31.4	959,902	45.8
Wage increase, hour decrease.....	8	2.0	3,300	1.7	55	1.5	39,515	1.9
Wage decrease, hour increase.....	7	1.7	4,534	2.3	106	2.9	32,734	1.6
Total.....					7	.2	257	(1)
Union organization.....	211	52.1	57,033	28.7	1,832	49.8	609,582	33.5
Recognition.....	35	8.6	4,983	2.5	329	8.9	184,809	8.8
Recognition and wages.....	88	21.7	16,085	8.1	723	19.6	204,004	9.8
Recognition and hours.....					2	.1	46	(1)
Recognition, wages, and hours.....	20	4.9	1,936	1.0	197	5.4	24,839	1.2
Discrimination.....	24	5.9	4,188	2.1	162	4.4	40,076	1.9
Strengthening bargaining position.....	6	1.5	11,293	5.7	80	2.2	85,179	4.1
Closed or union shop.....	35	8.6	16,970	8.5	303	8.2	141,654	6.8
Other.....	3	.7	1,578	.8	86	1.0	18,885	.9
Miscellaneous.....	53	13.1	67,000	33.7	521	14.2	359,187	17.2
Sympathy.....	5	1.2	760	.4	33	.9	32,224	1.5
Rival unions or factions.....	13	3.2	7,766	3.9	150	4.1	112,500	5.4
Jurisdiction <sup>2</sup> .....	10	2.5	16,834	8.5	76	2.1	26,411	1.3
Other.....	25	6.2	41,640	20.9	251	6.8	187,304	9.0
Not reported.....					11	.3	748	(1)

<sup>1</sup> Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

<sup>2</sup> It is probable that the figures here given do not include all jurisdictional strikes. Due to the local nature of these disputes, it is difficult for the Bureau to find out about all of them.

*Labor Organizations Involved*

About 53 percent of the strikes beginning in the first 10 months of the year involved unions affiliated with the American Federation of Labor. These strikes included one-fourth of the total workers involved (table 7). Unions affiliated with the Congress of Industrial Organizations were involved in 38 percent of the strikes, including about 69 percent of the total workers involved in all strikes beginning during this period.

In about 4 percent of the strikes, rival unions were involved. Most of these were A. F. of L. versus C. I. O., although in some cases unaffiliated organizations were contesting each other or an A. F. of L. or C. I. O. union.

TABLE 7.—*Strikes Beginning in the First 10 Months of 1941, by Affiliations of Labor Organizations Involved*

Labor organization involved	Strikes		Workers involved	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total.....	3,679	100.0	2,091,177	100.0
American Federation of Labor.....	1,965	53.4	532,066	25.4
Congress of Industrial Organizations.....	1,387	37.7	1,431,905	68.6
Unaffiliated unions.....	58	1.6	24,766	1.2
Railroad brotherhoods.....	2	.1	82	(1)
Two rival unions.....	141	3.8	81,491	3.9
Company unions.....	15	.4	2,995	.1
No organization.....	109	3.0	17,697	.8
Organization involved, but type not reported.....	1	(1)	7	(1)
Not reported.....	1	(1)	168	(1)

<sup>(1)</sup> Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

*Duration of Strikes*

The average duration of the 3,616 strikes ending in the first 10 months of 1941 was 18 calendar days. About 41 percent of these strikes were terminated in less than a week after they began, 43 percent lasted from a week up to a month, and 16 percent were in progress for a month or longer (table 8). In the last group there were 97 strikes (2.7 percent of the total) which lasted 3 months or more. Most of these were small strikes, only 11 involving 500 or more workers.

TABLE 8.—*Strikes Ending in the 10-Month Period, January–October 1941, by Industry Group and Duration*

Industry group	Total	Number of strikes with duration of—					
		Less than 1 week	1 week and less than $\frac{1}{2}$ month	$\frac{1}{2}$ and less than 1 month	1 and less than 2 months	2 and less than 3 months	3 months or more
All industries:							
Number	3,616	1,465	911	659	388	96	97
Percent	100.0	40.5	25.2	18.2	10.7	2.7	2.7
<i>Manufacturing</i>							
Iron, steel, and their products, excluding machinery	300	150	73	38	30	7	2
Machinery, excluding transportation equipment	255	85	70	53	33	10	4
Transportation equipment	154	78	46	22	7	1	
Nonferrous metals and their products	105	32	34	24	11	1	3
Lumber and allied products	256	70	58	71	37	7	13
Stone, clay, and glass products	116	31	33	22	16	9	5
Textiles and their products	412	147	107	89	45	8	16
Leather and its manufactures	75	22	27	15	9	1	1
Food and kindred products	233	89	54	47	25	9	9
Tobacco manufactures	6		2	2	2		
Paper and printing	113	40	21	21	24	5	2
Chemicals and allied products	69	20	22	12	12		3
Rubber products	39	18	10	4	5	1	1
Miscellaneous manufacturing	139	45	37	29	21	5	2
<i>Nonmanufacturing</i>							
Extraction of minerals	121	66	26	12	10	4	3
Transportation and communication	206	109	48	31	13	3	2
Trade	344	132	77	73	40	11	11
Domestic and personal service	177	79	39	33	12	5	9
Professional service	25	13	5	3	1	1	2
Building and construction	342	174	90	44	23	5	6
Agriculture and fishing	23	11	8	2	1		1
WPA and relief projects	5	2	1	1			1
Other nonmanufacturing industries	101	52	23	11	11	3	1

### Methods of Negotiating Settlements

Government officials or boards assisted in the settlement of 53 percent of the strikes ending in the period, January to October (table 9). About 72 percent of the total workers involved were included in these strikes. The National Defense Mediation Board assisted in the settlement of 68 of these strikes, which included 488,374 workers. Employers and union representatives negotiating directly settled 34 percent of the strikes including about one-fourth of the total workers involved. In 10 percent of the strikes, including less than 4 percent of the workers involved, no formal settlements were reached. In these strikes the workers either returned on the employers' terms or lost their jobs entirely when new workers were hired or the plants were closed or moved to other localities.

**TABLE 9.—Methods of Negotiating Settlements of Strikes Ending in the 10-Month Period, January–October 1941**

Settlement negotiations carried on by—	Strikes		Workers involved	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total.....	3,616	100.0	2,002,715	100.0
Employers and workers directly.....	73	2.0	9,345	.5
Employers and representatives of organized workers directly.....	1,224	33.8	482,929	24.1
Government officials or boards.....	1,917	53.1	1,433,482	71.6
Private conciliators or arbitrators.....	32	.9	3,950	.2
Terminated without formal settlement.....	370	10.2	73,000	3.6

### *Results of Strikes*

About 42 percent of the strikes ending in the first 10 months of the year resulted in substantial gains to the workers (table 10). These strikes included 41 percent of the total workers involved. In 36 percent of the strikes, involving 43 percent of the workers, compromise settlements were reached. There were little or no gains to workers as a result of 14 percent of the strikes, which included 6 percent of the total workers involved.

**TABLE 10.—Results of Strikes Ending in the 10-Month Period, January–October 1941**

Result	Strikes		Workers involved	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total.....	3,616	100.0	2,002,715	100.0
Substantial gains to workers.....	1,528	42.4	820,250	41.0
Partial gains or compromises.....	1,303	36.0	864,396	43.1
Little or no gains to workers.....	508	14.0	124,658	6.2
Jurisdiction, rival union or faction settlements.....	215	5.9	121,202	6.1
Indeterminate.....	48	1.3	70,729	3.5
Not reported.....	14	.4	1,480	.1

Table 11 shows the results of strikes ending in the first 10 months of 1941 in relation to the major issues involved. There were more union-organization strikes won and lost than wage-and-hour strikes, but fewer, proportionately, were compromised. There was a slightly larger proportion of workers involved in the successful wage-and-hour strikes than in the successful union-organization disputes, but about the same proportion of workers in each group were involved in the strikes which were compromised and in those which were lost.

The results of about 7 percent of the strikes, including nearly 10 percent of the workers involved, were indeterminate and could not be evaluated in terms of gains or losses to all workers involved. Many of these were jurisdictional or rival union strikes.

TABLE 11.—*Results of Strikes Ending in the 10-Month Period, January–October 1941, in Relation to Major Issues Involved*

Major issue	Total	Strikes resulting in—					
		Substantial gains to workers	Partial gains or compromises	Little or no gains to workers	Jurisdiction, rival union or faction settlements	Indeterminate	Not reported
<b>Strikes</b>							
All issues	3,616	1,528	1,303	508	215	48	14
Wages and hours	1,306	587	580	133	—	4	2
Union organization	1,793	851	607	315	—	18	2
Miscellaneous	517	90	116	60	215	26	10
<b>Percentage distribution</b>							
All issues	100.0	42.4	36.0	14.0	5.9	1.3	0.4
Wages and hours	100.0	44.9	44.4	10.2	—	.3	.2
Union organization	100.0	47.4	33.9	17.6	—	1.0	.1
Miscellaneous	100.0	17.4	22.4	11.6	41.7	5.0	1.0
<b>Workers involved</b>							
All issues	2,002,715	820,250	864,396	124,658	121,202	70,729	1,480
Wages and hours	1,026,620	486,695	478,787	58,614	—	2,323	201
Union organization	634,087	266,997	293,897	42,989	—	30,170	34
Miscellaneous	342,008	66,558	91,712	23,055	121,202	38,236	1,245
<b>Percentage distribution</b>							
All issues	100.0	41.0	43.1	6.2	6.1	3.5	0.1
Wages and hours	100.0	47.5	46.6	5.7	—	.2	(1)
Union organization	100.0	42.1	46.3	6.8	—	4.8	(1)
Miscellaneous	100.0	19.5	26.8	6.7	35.4	11.2	.4

<sup>1</sup> Less than a tenth of 1 percent.



## ACTIVITIES OF THE UNITED STATES CONCILIATION SERVICE, DECEMBER 1941

THE United States Conciliation Service during December disposed of 466 situations, involving 226,245 workers (table 1). The services of this agency were requested by the employers, employees, and other interested parties. Of these situations 92 were strikes and lock-outs involving 21,669 workers; 221 were threatened strikes and controversies involving 178,582 workers. Five disputes were certified during the month to the National Defense Mediation Board, and jurisdiction was assumed by other agencies in 20 others. The remaining 128 situations included investigations, arbitrations, requests for information, consultations, etc.

The facilities of the Service were used in 28 major industrial fields, such as building trades, and the manufacture of foods, iron and steel, textiles, etc. (table 2), and were utilized by employees and employers in 40 States and the District of Columbia (table 3).

TABLE 1.—*Situations Disposed of by United States Conciliation Service, December 1941, by Type of Situation*

Type of situation	Number	Workers involved
All situations handled.	466	226,245
Disputes	313	200,251
Strikes	91	21,667
Threatened strikes	149	111,373
Lock-outs	1	2
Controversies	72	67,209
Other situations	128	17,110
Investigations	40	8,392
Technical investigations and services	27	3,388
Arbitrations	23	3,946
Requests to conduct consent elections	1	47
Requests for information	7	9
Consultations	7	31
Special services of Commissioners	8	1,265
Complaints	15	32
Disputes referred to other agencies during negotiations	25	8,884
To National Defense Mediation Board	5	2,707
To National Labor Relations Board	15	5,607
To other Federal agencies	2	250
To nongovernmental agencies	3	320

TABLE 2.—*Situations Disposed of by United States Conciliation Service, December 1941, by Industries*

Industry	Disputes		Other situations		Total	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved
All industries	338	209,135	128	17,110	466	226,245
Agriculture	2	381	1	225	3	606
Automobile	8	2,114	4	843	12	2,957
Building trades	22	14,169	6	258	28	14,427
Chemicals	11	1,141	1	175	12	1,316
Communications	2	4,200	1	10	3	4,210
Domestic and personal	12	1,440	4	649	16	2,089
Electrical equipment	15	5,524	5	458	20	5,982
Food	30	9,960	7	2,546	37	12,506
Furniture and finished lumber	15	2,827	12	1,284	27	4,111
Iron and steel	40	17,803	18	1,559	58	19,362
Leather	4	396	3	236	7	632
Lumber	14	4,828	3	266	17	5,094
Machinery	23	25,053	5	479	28	25,532
Maritime	15	33,647	2	430	17	34,077
Mining	2	182			2	182
Nonferrous metals	16	6,551	1	110	17	6,661
Paper	4	560			4	560
Petroleum	2	132	2	204	4	426
Printing	4	583	4	200	8	783
Professional	1	18			1	18
Rubber	5	5,876			5	5,876
Stone, clay, and glass	16	2,443	2	35	18	2,478
Textile	22	31,449	20	4,117	42	35,566
Tobacco			1	25	1	25
Trade	5	268	9	1,057	14	1,325
Transportation	18	3,421	4	534	22	3,955
Transportation equipment	20	29,493	5	5	25	29,498
Utilities	2	2,065	3	882	5	2,947
Unclassified	8	2,611	5	433	13	3,044

TABLE 3.—*Situations Disposed of by United States Conciliation Service, December 1941,  
by States*

State	Disputes		Other situations		Total	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved
All States	338	209,135	128	17,110	466	226,245
Alabama	7	1,259	5	600	12	1,949
Arizona	2	5	1	3	3	8
Arkansas	4	717			4	717
California	34	35,021	12	2,606	46	37,627
Colorado	1	200			1	200
Connecticut	5	2,573	3	208	8	2,781
Delaware	3	2,088	1	1	4	2,089
District of Columbia	5	181	5	92	10	273
Florida	17	6,557	6	71	23	6,628
Georgia	7	741	6	1,145	13	1,886
Idaho	1	.580			1	.580
Illinois	23	25,637	7	1,679	30	27,316
Indiana	12	3,752	8	232	20	3,984
Iowa	7	444	3	281	10	725
Kansas	4	376	2	276	6	652
Kentucky	2	2,800	4	399	6	3,199
Louisiana	11	5,849	3	77	14	5,926
Maryland	5	4,681			5	4,681
Massachusetts	7	19,570	2	522	9	20,092
Michigan	17	7,577	3	102	20	7,679
Minnesota	4	187	1	5	5	192
Mississippi	1	44			1	44
Missouri	11	2,116	3	256	14	2,372
Montana	2	285			2	285
Nebraska	1	381			1	381
Nevada			1	564	1	564
New Jersey	13	3,008	2	116	15	3,124
New York	21	34,318	6	1,323	27	35,641
North Carolina	4	7,094	6	1,417	10	8,511
Ohio	30	7,167	13	443	43	7,610
Oklahoma	4	917	1	1	5	918
Oregon	6	2,254	1	1	7	2,255
Pennsylvania	26	14,464	7	1,715	33	16,179
Rhode Island	2	3,430	2	11	4	3,441
South Carolina	6	7,055	3	918	9	7,973
Tennessee	11	1,767	3	59	14	1,826
Texas	2	488	4	342	6	830
Virginia	10	2,776	1	25	11	2,801
Washington	5	224	2	1,130	7	1,354
West Virginia	1	6			1	6
Wisconsin	4	546	1	400	5	946



## NATIONAL WAR LABOR BOARD ESTABLISHED

THE activities of the National Defense Mediation Board, established in March 1941, were drastically curtailed when representatives of the Congress of Industrial Organizations resigned and most of the C. I. O. unions withdrew their cases, following the Board's adverse decision in the captive mine union-shop dispute late in November.<sup>1</sup> This, together with the added necessity for uninterrupted production following the outbreak of war, caused the President, on December 17, to summon a conference of labor, employer, and Government representatives<sup>2</sup> to formulate means for eliminating strikes and lock-outs in defense industries.

<sup>1</sup> See Monthly Labor Review, January 1941 (pp. 94-97), for information on captive coal-mine strike and settlement.

<sup>2</sup> Government moderators were William H. Davis, chairman of the National Defense Mediation Board, and Senator Elbert D. Thomas, chairman of the Senate Committee on Education and Labor. The A. F. of L. and the C. I. O. each appointed five representatives, including Presidents Green and Murray.

Employer and labor delegates came to the conference with divergent opinions regarding the disposition of closed-shop or "union-security" disputes. The employer group maintained that existing union-status conditions should be frozen for the duration of the war and that disputes over union recognition, beyond that protected by the National Labor Relations Act, should not be a matter of conciliation or arbitration by a Government agency. Both the American Federation of Labor and the Congress of Industrial Organizations' delegates insisted, however, that disputes over union status should be subject to the same consideration as those over wages and other matters.

The conferees reached no agreement on this controversial issue. However, by implication, union-shop disputes were included among other disputes to be handled by the War Labor Board, the President stating in his acceptance of the conferees' agreement on December 23—

I am happy to accept your general points of agreement as follows:

1. There shall be no strikes or lock-outs.
2. All disputes shall be settled by peaceful means.
3. The President shall set up a proper War Labor Board to handle these disputes.

I accept without reservation your covenants that there shall be no strikes or lock-outs and all disputes shall be settled by peaceful means. I shall proceed at once to act on your third point.

Government must act in general. The three points agreed upon cover of necessity all disputes that may arise between labor and management.

The particular disputes must be left to the consideration of those who can study the particular differences and who are thereby prepared by knowledge to pass judgment in the particular case. I have full faith that no group in our national life will take undue advantage while we are faced by common enemies.

On January 12, 1942, the President provided for the establishment of the National War Labor Board.

The character and procedures of the Board are set forth in the order as follows:<sup>3</sup>

There is hereby created in the Office for Emergency Management a National War Labor Board, hereinafter referred to as the Board. The Board shall be composed of 12 special commissioners to be appointed by the President. Four of the members shall be representative of the public; 4 shall be representative of employees; and 4 shall be representative of employers. The President shall designate the Chairman and Vice-Chairman of the Board from the members representing the public. The President shall appoint 4 alternate members representative of employees and 4 representative of employers, to serve as Board members in the absence of regular members representative of their respective groups. Six members or alternate members of the Board, including not less than 2 members from each of the groups represented on the Board, shall constitute a quorum. A vacancy in the Board shall not impair the right of the remaining members to exercise all the powers of the Board.

<sup>3</sup> Executive Order No. 9017.

This order does not apply to labor disputes for which procedures for adjustment or settlement are otherwise provided until those procedures have been exhausted.

The procedures for adjusting and settling labor disputes which might interrupt work which contributes to the effective prosecution of the war shall be as follows: (a) The parties shall first resort to direct negotiations or to the procedures provided in a collective-bargaining agreement. (b) If not settled in this manner, the Commissioners of Conciliation of the Department of Labor shall be notified if they have not already intervened in the dispute. (c) If not promptly settled by conciliation, the Secretary of Labor shall certify the dispute to the Board, provided, however, that the Board in its discretion after consultation with the Secretary may take jurisdiction of the dispute on its own motion. After it takes jurisdiction, the Board shall finally determine the dispute, and for this purpose may use mediation, voluntary arbitration, or arbitration under rules established by the Board.

The Board shall have power to promulgate rules and regulations appropriate for the performance of its duties.

The members of the Board (including alternates) shall receive necessary traveling expenses, and, unless their compensation is otherwise prescribed by the President, shall receive in addition to traveling expenses \$25 per diem for subsistence expense on such days as they are actually engaged in the performance of duties pursuant to this order. The Board is authorized to appoint and fix the compensation of its officers, examiners, mediators, umpires, and arbitrators; and the Chairman is authorized to appoint and fix the compensation of other necessary employees of the Board. The Board shall avail itself, insofar as practicable, of the services and facilities of the Office for Emergency Management and of other departments and agencies of the Government.

The order further provided that upon the appointment of the National War Labor Board and the designation of its chairman, the National Defense Mediation Board<sup>2</sup> (established by Executive order of March 19, 1941) should cease to exist and its personnel should be transferred to the new Board. At the same time all records, papers, property, and all unexpended funds and appropriations for the use and maintenance of the National Defense Mediation Board were transferred to the National War Labor Board. The new Board also assumed all duties with respect to cases certified to the previously established body.

Nothing in the Executive order creating the National War Labor Board is to be construed as superseding or in conflict with the provisions of the Railway Labor Act, the National Labor Relations Act, the Fair Labor Standards Act, the Public Contracts Act of 1936 as amended to provide conditions for the purchase of supplies, or the Davis-Bacon legislation requiring payment of prevailing rates of wages on public work.

The President appointed the following as members of the new Board.

*Representing the public:* William H. Davis, chairman, formerly head of the National Defense Mediation Board; George W. Taylor, vice chairman, professor of economics, University of Pennsylvania;

<sup>1</sup> See *Monthly Labor Review*, May 1941, for a description of the Mediation Board's powers (p. 1137).

Frank P. Graham, president of University of North Carolina and formerly vice chairman of National Defense Mediation Board; and Wayne L. Morse, dean of the Oregon University Law School.

*Employee members:* Thomas Kennedy, secretary-treasurer of the United Mine Workers of America; George Meany, secretary-treasurer, American Federation of Labor; R. J. Thomas, president of the United Automobile Workers of America; and Mathew Woll, vice president of the American Federation of Labor. *Alternates:* Martin P. Durkin, secretary-treasurer, United Association of Plumbers and Steamfitters of the United States and Canada; C. S. Golden, regional director of Steel Workers' Organizing Committee; Emil Rieve, president of Textile Workers Union of America, and Robert J. Watt, international representative, American Federation of Labor.

*Employer members:* A. W. Hawkes, president, United States Chamber of Commerce and president, Congoleum-Nairn, Inc.; Roger D. Lapham, chairman of the board, American-Hawaiian Steamship Co.; E. J. McMillan, president, Standard Knitting Mills, Inc., and Walter C. Teagle, chairman of the board, Standard Oil Co. (N. J.). *Alternates:* L. N. Bent, vice president, Hercules Powder Co.; R. R. Deupree, president, Procter & Gamble Co.; George H. Mead, president, the Mead Corporation; and H. B. Horton, Chicago Bridge & Iron Corporation.

At its first meeting, the Board decided that its members would not engage in conciliation activities but would devote their time to the final determination of those disputes which are not settled by mediation or voluntary arbitration. A few days later the President appointed 24 associate members, 8 each from labor, industry, and the public, to serve as mediators. In addition, the Board may appoint special mediators or examiners, inside or outside the Government service, for any particular case.

If the mediator is unable to settle a dispute and either or both parties are unwilling to submit it to arbitration, the mediator will submit findings of fact and recommendations to the Board. The Board may render the final decision on the basis of these findings, or it may decide to have the parties to the dispute appear before the Board in formal hearings before rendering a final decision.

## COMPULSORY ARBITRATION IN CUBAN LABOR DISPUTES<sup>1</sup>

COMPULSORY conciliation and arbitration procedure for the settlement of labor disputes in Cuba was established as an emergency war measure in decree No. 3315 of December 10, 1941. This action is designed to expedite the solution of the numerous labor disputes which

<sup>1</sup> Report of George S. Messersmith, United States Ambassador at Habana.

have recently arisen and to prevent the interruption of production by strikes.

The decree provides that immediately upon the outbreak of a labor dispute a conciliation commission shall be formed, composed of a representative of the Ministry of Labor, a representative of the employer group affected, and a representative of the labor union involved. This commission shall endeavor to bring about a solution which will be satisfactory to all parties concerned. In the event that such a solution cannot be reached, the dispute must be submitted to the arbitration of the Ministry of Labor, whose decision is final. Should a stoppage of production occur during the conciliation procedure, through an illegal strike, the Ministry of Labor shall take immediate action in accordance with the labor laws in force.

## *Social Insurance*

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### **SAVINGS-BANK LIFE INSURANCE IN MASSACHUSETTS AND NEW YORK**

BECAUSE of the importance of low-cost life insurance from the social viewpoint, Massachusetts has permitted savings banks in that Commonwealth to write life insurance under conditions intended to reduce the cost. The system of savings-bank life insurance was initiated in 1907, and has grown rapidly, more than \$200,000,000 of such insurance being in force in May 1941.

In 1938, New York became the second State to introduce savings-bank life insurance. Its system was modeled substantially upon the Massachusetts plan. Savings-bank life insurance in force in New York on July 1, 1941, totaled \$15,334,500. In May 1941, Connecticut passed a law similar to that of New York. Legislation has been considered but not enacted by the legislatures of Maine, Maryland, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Rhode Island.

The present article is a summary of a report on the "Operation of Savings-Bank Life Insurance in Massachusetts and New York," recently issued as Bulletin No. 688 of the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The report brings up to date Bulletin No. 615 (which was issued in 1935), entitled "The Massachusetts System of Savings-Bank Life Insurance," and also describes the operation of the New York system of savings-bank life insurance established in 1939.

#### *Savings-Bank Life Insurance in Massachusetts*

##### **ORIGIN, PURPOSES, AND GROWTH OF SAVINGS-BANK LIFE INSURANCE**

During the early years of the twentieth century, the waste of the funds of life-insurance policyholders had become so great and so widespread that several important committees were appointed to investigate the situation. These included a committee appointed by the directors of one of the largest life-insurance companies; the Armstrong Committee appointed by the Assembly of the State of New York; and a "Policyholders Protective Committee" appointed by a group of New England policyholders. The latter committee engaged as counsel Louis D. Brandeis who, after his investigations,

presented a plan for the sale of life insurance over-the-counter by the savings banks of Massachusetts.

The Brandeis proposals were presented to the Massachusetts Legislature in 1906, and the supporters of the plan organized the Massachusetts Savings Insurance League to urge support of the plan. Partly because of an active publicity campaign conducted by the League, the plan received legal approval in a law passed in 1907.

Among the purposes of the legislation were the following: (a) To eliminate what were regarded as unnecessarily high costs, under the system of sale of insurance by agents; (b) to make it possible for policyholders to obtain such privileges as cash surrender value, loans, extended insurance and paid-up insurance, at an early period and under more advantageous conditions than were generally common in the case of life insurance as sold by the private companies; (c) to eliminate the possibility of overselling insurance and thereby to decrease the proportion of lapsed policies; (d) to provide life insurance under such conditions that its sale would not increase the profits of private individuals conducting the business.

The Whitman (Mass.) Savings Bank, in June 1908, established the first insurance department under the law. Three more banks joined the system between 1908 and 1912, 6 between 1922 and 1925, 11 between 1929 and 1931, and 8 in 1934 and thereafter, making a total of 29 savings banks issuing life insurance.

During early years, the growth in insurance was slow. Recently however, savings-bank life insurance has come to represent an important place in the life insurance in force in the Commonwealth. In 1940, the savings banks ranked sixth as regards amount of life insurance in force in the Commonwealth. The relative position of the savings banks is improving, as witnessed by the fact that only three insurance companies wrote more insurance in 1940 than did the banks, and only one company gained as much in insurance in force (after allowance for terminations).

#### ADMINISTRATION OF THE SYSTEM

Savings-bank life insurance may be purchased by residents of Massachusetts or by persons regularly employed in the Commonwealth. After policies are purchased, the policyholders may move to other States and continue to carry the insurance. The amount which can be purchased by a policyholder from any one bank is limited to \$1,000 of insurance and an annuity of \$200 a year. In addition, the system has imposed a limit of \$25,000 on the insurance that may be purchased by a single policyholder from all banks. The similar limitation on annuities is \$50 a month for the income from immediate annuities and \$100 a month from deferred annuities.

The banks sell the usual types of insurance and retirement contracts. The life-insurance policies include whole life insurance, limited-payment life insurance, endowment insurance, 5-year renewable term insurance, and decreasing term insurance to repay mortgages. In addition, the banks issue juvenile insurance and group insurance for employee groups. The annuities include both immediate annuities (the income from which commences immediately, and for which the annuitant pays by a single lump sum) and deferred annuities (which are usually paid for by annual premiums before retirement, in return for which the annuitant receives an income after retirement).

Responsibility for administration of the system is lodged with seven unpaid trustees who supervise the activities of a specially created State Division of Savings Bank Life Insurance, administered by a salaried official of the Commonwealth. The central organization also includes a State actuary to determine rates, and a State medical director who is in charge of the medical selection of applicants for life insurance. The expenses of this State Division are now assessed upon the issuing banks, and the cost is thus borne by policyholders.

The law requires that the savings department and the insurance department of any bank be operated separately. Neither department is liable for the obligations of the other. The insurance issued by any bank is guaranteed, first, by the assets of the insurance department of that bank; and, second, by the General Insurance Guaranty Fund, a central fund to which the banks which issue insurance contribute. By law, mortality losses are shared among the banks, in order that unusually large losses among the policyholders of a single bank will not burden that bank too heavily. This "unification" is not extended to matters other than mortality, because the other items such as investments and expenses are within the control of a particular bank, while mortality is not.

Though only 29 banks are authorized to issue insurance, the system has a much larger number of agencies. These include, in addition to the issuing banks, other savings banks, employers' agencies, credit unions, and public agencies such as settlement houses. In June 1939, there was a total of 517 of these agencies. The bulk of the business, however, is written through the 138 issuing and agency savings banks.

Savings-bank life insurance is subject to the supervision of both the commissioner of banks and the commissioner of insurance.

#### **FINANCIAL OPERATIONS OF THE SYSTEM**

The major source of the "dividends" paid to the policyholders of the bank is the savings from mortality experience (this is true of most insurance companies also). Dividends are also affected by other

factors, such as the expenses of operation and the return that can be obtained from investments. In the savings-bank life-insurance system, mortality losses are unified among all banks, but investments and expenses are the concern of each individual bank. For this reason, in some years dividends paid by the different banks may vary.

During the earlier years of operation, the costs of the Division of Savings Bank Life Insurance were met by State appropriations. Commencing in 1927, increasing proportions of the expenses of the Division were paid by the member banks. At the present time, the banks advance all the funds needed to operate the Division.

Before November 1, 1939, savings-bank life-insurance funds were taxed by the Commonwealth in exactly the same manner as deposits in the savings departments of the banks. Since that time, the funds of the insurance departments have been subject to the same State taxes as the funds of life-insurance companies. Mutual savings banks (including the insurance departments) are exempt from Federal income taxes.

The funds of the insurance department of a bank must be invested in the same manner as the funds of the savings departments.

#### **SAVINGS-BANK INSURANCE AND COMPANY INSURANCE: SELLING METHODS, POLICY TERMS, AND POLICY MAINTENANCE**

The field work of private insurance companies may be organized in two ways: (1) Under the general-agent plan, and (2) under the branch-office plan. Under either plan, the sale of insurance is made by a large number of agents who receive commissions. For ordinary whole-life insurance, the commission may be 50 percent of the first year's premium, and 5 percent of the premium for each of the next 9 years. In addition, the general agent, under whom the agent works, receives an "overriding" commission. The agent selling industrial policies receives a commission for the sale of insurance and payments for the collection of premiums on insurance already in force.

The savings banks do not employ solicitors and agents, although two persons are regularly employed on salary to instruct industrial workers (whenever requested by their employers) in the advantages of savings-bank life insurance. In fact, the essential difference between savings-bank life insurance and that of the private companies is not the difference between a State-sponsored system and a private system, but rather the difference between insurance sold by a commissioned-agency system and that sold by a non-agency system.

The provisions of savings-bank insurance policies are similar to the provisions of the ordinary policies issued by the insurance companies. The major difference lies in the fact that the large commissions paid by the company from the first premium received for a policy do not

permit the companies (with a very few exceptions) to grant cash or loan values before the second or third policy year. Savings-bank insurance provides for cash values at the end of 6 months and for loan values after 1 year. Industrial policies of private companies are generally less favorable than ordinary policies.

The favorable provisions and low cost of savings-bank insurance, together with the fact that it is sold by individuals receiving salaries instead of commissions (and who are therefore less likely to oversell the policyholder), have resulted in a lapse rate for savings-bank life insurance which is much less than the lapse rate among other forms of insurance. If the experience of all the insurance organizations operating in Massachusetts is considered, the ratios of insurance lapsed to new insurance written in the year 1939 were 1.44 percent for the savings-banks, 27.61 percent for all company ordinary insurance, and 16.62 percent for industrial insurance.

#### SAVINGS-BANK INSURANCE AND COMPANY INSURANCE: COSTS TO POLICYHOLDER

The cost to the policyholder of ordinary life insurance sold by the savings banks is lower than that of ordinary insurance sold by the private companies, and is also lower than that of industrial insurance. The low cost of savings-bank life insurance is mainly the result of low overhead and the absence of selling commissions; of favorable mortality ratios; and of interest returns on invested assets higher than is usual among the insurance companies.

A comparison of expense ratios for the banks and the insurance companies indicates the low operating expenses of the savings-bank insurance system. The ratios of expenses of operation to premium income for the insurance departments of the banks, for ordinary insurance sold by the companies, and for industrial insurance, have been as follows in recent years:

	<i>Savings- bank or- dinary insurance</i>	<i>All ordinary insurance</i>	<i>Indus- trial in- surance</i>
1927.....	percent..	4.55	18.82
1932.....	do....	5.18	15.44
1937.....	do....	7.16	14.13
1938.....	do....	8.33	13.77
			27.64
			22.02
			25.32
			25.45

The apparent increase in the banks' ratio in recent years is partly explained by the fact that on November 1, 1935, gross premiums were substantially reduced, so that the same dollar expense would result in a higher ratio to premiums received. Actually, the expenses per \$1,000 insurance in force were \$2.58 in 1937; \$2.59 in 1938; \$2.66 in 1939; and \$2.64 in 1940.

Probably the most important factor explaining the difference between the banks and insurance companies in operating expenses is that savings-bank insurance is sold without an agency system requiring large expenditures for commissions and salaries. The average ratio of salaries to premium income of the savings banks from 1929 to 1939 was 3.08 percent. For the insurance departments of four mutual companies selling both ordinary and industrial insurance, it was 12.02 percent during the same period; for their industrial departments, it was 20.76 percent.

The greater expenses of operation of the insurance companies may be explained to a slight extent by the fact that the companies have borne a somewhat heavier burden of taxation. The insurance companies have paid roughly about 2 percent of their premium income in taxes and fees, as compared with about two-thirds of 1 percent (in recent years somewhat more) paid by the insurance departments of the banks. The difference is, however, not enough to explain the difference in cost to policyholders.

Another reason for the lower cost of savings-bank insurance is that the insurance departments of the banks have in the past earned a higher rate of return on their invested assets than have the insurance companies, as indicated below:

<i>Net interest earned during year —</i>	<i>Savings-bank insurance departments</i>	<i>All insurance organizations, including banks</i>
1927	percent	5.25
1932	do	5.02
1937	do	3.93
1938	do	3.84
		5.02
		4.65
		3.68
		3.56

With certain exceptions, the investments of the banks and the insurance companies are similar. The more favorable nature of the return earned by the banks is probably caused by better experience with mortgages. The mortgages placed by the banks have usually been for small amounts and placed on local property with which the banks are familiar. The insurance companies, on the other hand, have placed large sums in mortgages on large buildings, and on western and southern farm lands, which have had an unfortunate earning experience in recent years.

A further reason for the low costs of savings-bank life insurance is to be found in the comparatively low ratios of actual to expected mortality experienced by the banks. These ratios are shown in the following table:

	<i>Savings-bank insurance</i>	<i>All ordinary insurance</i>	<i>Industrial insurance</i>
1927	percent	43.74	63.88
1932	do	39.85	63.10
1937	do	35.89	58.95
1938	do	34.20	47.52
		53.78	55.72
		56.95	43.76

Generalizations based on mortality rates must be used with great care, and are especially unsafe when they result in comparisons between different insurance organizations. However, it does not appear that the differences in mortality are explained by the fact that the savings banks are a more recent organization than the insurance companies.

Among the factors that explain the differences in mortality are the lack of pressure by agents upon medical examiners for savings-bank insurance; the absence of single policies for large amounts; favorable health conditions in the New England area; and the fact that policyholders are not "oversold."

#### **FACTORS AFFECTING GROWTH OF SAVINGS-BANK LIFE INSURANCE**

The growth of savings-bank life insurance has been encouraged by the favorable nature of the policies and by their low cost. A contributing factor may have been the widespread criticism of industrial insurance in recent years.

An important reason for the growth has been the character of its leadership. Among the advocates of savings-bank insurance have been leading business men, labor leaders, and educators of Massachusetts. In addition, savings-bank life insurance has had the support of the Massachusetts Savings Bank Insurance League and of many prominent organizations throughout the State.

Savings-bank life insurance has at all times received the active support of many employers. The Associated Industries of Massachusetts, the most important organization of manufacturers in the Commonwealth, employs a secretary who devotes his time exclusively to the promotion of savings-bank life insurance.

Many savings banks in Massachusetts have not entered the savings-bank system to the extent of forming insurance departments. This is due in part to the conservatism of trustees and officers, and in part, perhaps, to the influence of insurance-company officers and agents. However, many banks which have not formed insurance departments have acted as agents for savings-bank life insurance. It is probable that the insurance business done by a bank stimulates, at least to some extent, the business of the savings department of the bank.

The issuing banks have formed a permanent association called the Savings Bank Life Insurance Council. Advertising for the system and other coordinating activities are now handled through this organization.

**CRITICISM OF SAVINGS-BANK LIFE INSURANCE**

Opponents of savings-bank life insurance have admitted that the insurance is sound from an actuarial viewpoint, but have criticized the following features:

(1) It has been objected that the original purpose of savings-bank insurance was to offer a substitute to the workman for the high-priced industrial insurance which he had been buying. Instead of this, it has been claimed that the system now sells insurance largely to members of the middle class who can afford substantial amounts. In reply, it can be stated that even when the original act was passed, its provisions admitted a large eventual total of life insurance to be issued to a single policyholder. However, a recent investigation indicates that persons with low incomes and purchasers of relatively small amounts of insurance generally constitute the system's policyholders. Seventy-six percent of the policyholders covered by the investigation were insured for \$1,000 or less; 90 percent for \$3,000 or less; and only 1.2 percent for more than \$10,000.

(2) It is claimed that the banks do not give their policyholders as much service as do the companies; that the latter give superior service with respect to some policy provisions, persuading people to buy life-insurance protection, advice to policyholders, and collection of premiums. In regard to the sale of life insurance and the collection of premiums, the success of savings-bank life insurance itself indicates that an extensive agency staff is not necessary to do this for many policyholders. Moreover, there may be at times conflict between the personal interests of the agent and the best interests of the insured person.

(3) It has been argued that savings-bank insurance owes its growth and the low cost of its insurance to subsidies received from various sources. Subsidies from the State, however (through payment of the expenses of the Division of Savings Bank Life Insurance during its earlier years), and from private agencies have not been appreciable when compared with the volume of premiums.

More important is the suggestion that the insurance departments have been subsidized by the fact that they have paid less than their share of the operating expenses of the bank. This subject has been carefully investigated, and it appears that: (1) The growing insurance departments are paying their direct expenses and absorbing an increasing proportion of the joint expenses and overhead of the savings-insurance banks. (2) Taking the savings-insurance system as a whole, the officers and trustees of the savings-insurance banks appear to be allocating an equitable share of the joint expenses of the banks to the insurance departments. (3) The cost of savings-bank life insurance to policyholders is lower for reasons other than that the depositors of savings banks are paying part of such costs.

**SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS**

The Massachusetts system of savings-bank life insurance was designed to provide dependable life insurance and annuities at low cost. The insurance is held to a great extent by workers and others receiving low incomes. The cost of the life insurance which they receive from the banks is less than that of either ordinary or industrial insurance sold by life-insurance companies, principally because savings-bank life insurance is sold without the use of agents employed on a commission basis. Cash and loan values, too, are more liberal, and the elimination of overselling has resulted in a very low lapse ratio.

***Savings-Bank Life Insurance in New York***

The law enacted in New York in 1938 and amended in 1940 for saving-bank life insurance is similar to the Massachusetts law. There are certain differences in administrative features and in the guaranty funds. More important, perhaps, is the difference in total life insurance which a policyholder can purchase from the system: In New York the amount is legally limited to \$3,000, as compared to \$25,000 in Massachusetts (the Massachusetts limitation is imposed not by law, but by the system itself).

On July 1, 1941, insurance departments had been established by 14 banks in New York and 12 more were acting as agency banks. The same causes which have restrained some Massachusetts banks from entering the system have also operated in New York. However, it may be said that the savings banks in New York have shown far more interest than did those in Massachusetts during the early years of savings-bank insurance in that State.

It is still too early to make any judgments concerning the cost of insurance issued by the New York savings banks. However, it seems probable that over a period of years differences in cost between the two systems will be negligible.

Certain conclusions may be reached from the operation of savings-bank life insurance in New York, limited as it has been:

1. There is a demand for savings-bank life insurance in New York, as evidenced by applications in 2½ years for more than \$15,000,000 of insurance.
2. Buyers of savings-bank life insurance have been largely people of limited income. More than 40 percent of the applicants have had no insurance at the time they applied, and 25 percent held only small industrial policies. Over one-half of the applicants have incomes of \$30 a week or less.

3. It is evident that the banks which provide savings-bank life insurance are enthusiastic about its benefits to the community and

to the banks. They have found that it is a valuable source of goodwill and that it attracts substantial numbers of new customers to the bank.

4. Present indications point to a substantial expansion in the number of New York savings banks providing this service, with aggressive promotional activities in publicizing this new thrift service.



## UNEMPLOYMENT-COMPENSATION OPERATIONS,<sup>1</sup> NOVEMBER 1941

CONTINUED-CLAIM receipts and the number of benefit recipients in November increased for the first time since the middle of 1941, reflecting lay-offs caused by shortages of materials as well as seasonal declines in activity. At the same time, the volume of unemployment-compensation payments, amounting to \$21,100,000, extended its decline to a new low. The average weekly amount of benefit disbursements during weeks ended in November was, however, 11 percent higher than in October. It appears, therefore, that the decline in total benefit payments from October was due to the fewer working days in November, and that the rate of disbursements actually increased.

The 2,600,000 claims filed and the weekly average of 470,400 workers receiving checks that month were, however, more than one-fourth below the November 1940 level. For the first 11 months of 1941, benefit payments aggregated \$317,900,000, 35 percent less than in the corresponding period of 1940.

### *Benefit Payments*

Despite the drop in total benefit payments in November, 30 jurisdictions had increases ranging from less than 1 percent in California and Illinois to 50 percent in Oregon and Wyoming. Nine of the 30 were major war-industry States—California, Connecticut, Illinois, Indiana, Missouri, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, and Washington. However, except for rises of 29 percent in Washington, 16 percent in Ohio, and 13 percent in Indiana, increases in war-industry States were small.

Normal seasonal unemployment in construction, and lay-offs in plants manufacturing automobiles, aluminum ware, and other civilian products affected by priorities were responsible for the increase in benefit payments in Wisconsin, while seasonal declines in construction and logging activity were probably the major factors contributing to the rise in Washington. The greater benefit disbursements in Oregon

<sup>1</sup> Prepared by Reports and Analysis Division, Bureau of Employment Security, Social Security Board.

were mainly attributable to seasonal reductions in logging and construction and to dislocations in manufacturing and trade caused by curtailment of nondefense production, and in Wyoming to cessation of the building program at Fort Warren and seasonal lay-offs in highway construction.

Other significant increases in benefit payments over October were those of 45 percent in New Hampshire, 40 percent in Maine, 35 percent in North Dakota, and 32 percent in Idaho. Slackening operations in the women's shoe industry largely account for the increases in Maine and New Hampshire. Seasonal reductions in the novelty industry in New Hampshire also were a contributing factor.

Benefit disbursements were higher than in November 1940 in 10 States—Florida, Indiana, Kansas, Louisiana, Michigan, Mississippi, New Jersey, North Carolina, Utah, and Wisconsin. The increase in New Jersey was more than 50 percent, while in four of the other States disbursements were between 20 and 25 percent higher than in November of the previous year.

#### *Weeks Compensated*

Although the number of compensated weeks of total unemployment dropped 3 percent from the previous month, to 1,700,000, the number of compensated weeks of partial unemployment rose to 150,000. For the 44 jurisdictions reporting comparable data, this represented an increase of 8 percent over the previous month, indicating that a shortened work week, rather than lay-off, was being resorted to in some industries under the stress of conversion from nondefense to war production.

The number of compensated weeks of partial and part-total unemployment combined rose 59 percent in Connecticut, mainly as a result of defense dislocations, and in Maine and New Hampshire, 70 and 95 percent, respectively, largely as a result of slackening seasonal operations in the ladies' shoe industry. In nine jurisdictions the number of compensated weeks of partial and part-total unemployment represented 20 percent or more of all weeks compensated; in three of these (Maine, New Hampshire, and West Virginia) the proportions approximated one-third of all weeks compensated.

#### *Average Number of Claimants*

The steady decline in the average number of benefit recipients was reversed in the month under review. Claimants receiving benefits were 9 percent more numerous than in October. This figure, however, was the smallest for any month since 1939, except October 1941. All but nine jurisdictions participated in the Nation-wide increase. Benefit recipients were at least half again as numerous as in October in Maine, New Hampshire, Oregon, Wisconsin, and Wyoming.

*Continued Unemployment-Compensation Claims Received, Weeks Compensated, and Benefits Paid, by States, November 1941*

[Data reported by State agencies, corrected to Dec. 23, 1941]

Social Security Board region and State	Continued claims <sup>1</sup>			Weeks compensated		
	Number	Type		Number	Type of unemployment	
		Waiting period	Compensable		Total	Partial and part-total combined <sup>2</sup>
Total	2,506,556	535,544	2,061,012	1,937,768	1,723,733	214,035
Region I:						
Connecticut	28,427	4,662	23,765	20,910	16,346	4,564
Maine	21,181	3,362	17,819	17,084	11,222	5,862
Massachusetts	142,259	30,100	112,159	114,138	99,264	14,874
New Hampshire	19,552	6,286	13,266	12,733	8,719	4,014
Rhode Island	25,059	3,120	21,939	21,939	19,951	1,988
Vermont	2,570	611	1,959	1,842	1,719	123
Region II:						
New York	438,789	106,851	331,938	324,635	324,635	(*)
Region III:						
Delaware	4,122	388	3,734	3,694	2,896	798
New Jersey	161,529	25,628	135,901	121,007	96,530	24,477
Pennsylvania	160,166	59,382	100,784	91,161	(*)	(*)
Region IV:						
District of Columbia	12,809	2,078	10,731	10,129	9,709	420
Maryland	28,919	1,777	27,142	26,106	20,731	5,375
North Carolina	51,941	7,898	44,043	43,167	40,281	2,886
Virginia	23,508	3,775	19,733	18,815	17,823	992
West Virginia	17,915	2,114	15,801	16,784	11,024	5,760
Region V:						
Kentucky	15,313	2,847	12,466	24,932	21,060	3,872
Michigan	100,283	18,536	81,747	85,892	82,583	3,309
Ohio	114,607	27,177	87,430	70,080	63,087	6,993
Region VI:						
Illinois	163,445	15,355	148,090	143,627	108,543	35,084
Indiana	59,641	9,528	50,113	50,051	43,900	6,151
Wisconsin	34,849	10,327	24,522	22,671	19,310	3,361
Region VII:						
Alabama	38,802	10,829	27,973	26,818	25,278	1,540
Florida	45,774	5,549	40,225	41,665	36,746	4,919
Georgia	47,220	16,668	30,552	31,457	30,177	1,280
Mississippi	20,193	4,528	15,665	14,510	13,923	587
South Carolina	28,790	4,911	23,879	19,440	18,148	1,292
Tennessee	61,937	5,519	56,418	42,802	40,172	2,630
Region VIII:						
Iowa	14,663	4,822	9,841	9,084	8,047	1,037
Minnesota	35,022	6,434	28,588	26,942	23,555	3,387
Nebraska	8,964	2,363	6,601	6,171	5,578	593
North Dakota	2,292	534	1,758	1,598	1,318	220
South Dakota	2,278	673	1,605	1,537	1,463	74
Region IX:						
Arkansas	14,367	2,821	11,546	11,546	10,997	549
Kansas	20,434	4,200	16,234	16,042	14,319	1,723
Missouri	73,281	20,080	53,201	48,486	30,131	9,355
Oklahoma	22,024	3,393	18,631	16,704	14,926	1,778
Region X:						
Louisiana	75,851	17,018	58,833	52,383	48,740	3,643
New Mexico	4,940	549	4,391	3,793	3,535	80
Texas	70,569	11,241	59,328	34,950	30,950	3,991
Region XI:						
Arizona	7,024	905	6,119	6,103	5,805	298
Colorado	11,310	2,403	8,907	8,175	7,490	685
Idaho	5,448	1,594	3,854	3,199	3,001	198
Montana	10,876	3,030	7,846	6,710	6,710	(*)
Utah	12,017	1,038	10,979	10,941	10,132	809
Wyoming	2,562	880	1,682	1,648	1,458	190
Region XII:						
California	280,201	45,407	234,794	219,551	183,170	36,381
Nevada	3,750	535	3,215	2,453	2,270	183
Oregon	14,931	3,882	11,049	9,817	7,976	1,841
Washington	31,072	11,332	19,740	19,617	16,304	3,313
Territories:						
Alaska	1,436	478	958	851	821	30
Hawaii	1,644	126	1,518	1,438	1,090	348

See footnotes at end of table.

## Continued Unemployment-Compensation Claims Received, Weeks Compensated, and Benefits Paid, by States, November 1941—Continued

[Data reported by State agencies, corrected to Dec. 23, 1941]

Social Security Board region and State	Benefits paid <sup>1</sup>			Month and year bene- fits first payable	Amount of benefits since first payable <sup>4</sup>	
	Amount <sup>3</sup>	Type of unemployment				
		Total	Partial and part-total combined <sup>2</sup>	Partial only <sup>3</sup>		
Total	\$21,066,351	\$19,503,194	\$1,550,560	\$1,029,025		\$1,660,927,670
Region I:						
Connecticut	214,033	183,648	30,348	29,735	Jan. 1938	24,875,566
Maine	123,215	85,433	37,782	34,546	do	12,429,605
Massachusetts	1,121,624	1,039,605	81,195	77,010	do	94,190,006
New Hampshire	96,664	73,662	23,002	22,680	do	7,550,830
Rhode Island	234,608	224,030	10,578	(*)	do	26,236,233
Vermont	15,223	14,637	573	308	do	2,743,719
Region II:						
New York	3,849,562	3,849,562	(*)	(*)	do	329,043,732
Region III:						
Delaware	33,100	28,252	4,838	4,285	Jan. 1939	2,035,530
New Jersey	1,367,763	1,191,342	176,036	173,134	do	44,274,029
Pennsylvania	963,810	963,810	(*)	(*)	Jan. 1938	192,294,874
Region IV:						
District of Columbia	120,976	115,982	4,680	844	do	7,184,355
Maryland	289,742	249,751	39,473	38,890	do	27,070,192
North Carolina	291,221	279,969	10,954	8,645	do	20,337,227
Virginia	156,998	150,871	6,066	3,567	do	18,751,164
West Virginia	162,413	114,759	47,654	46,946	do	23,033,447
Region V:						
Kentucky	178,328	160,253	17,440	10,380	Jan. 1939	12,077,364
Michigan	1,063,640	1,038,363	25,277	14,731	July 1938	117,998,084
Ohio	714,564	672,963	39,384	25,030	Jan. 1939	59,272,130
Region VI:						
Illinois	1,688,464	1,422,580	262,605	169,381	July 1939	86,000,648
Indiana	583,542	542,271	41,171	20,554	Apr. 1938	41,061,918
Wisconsin	238,985	212,204	26,781	15,450	July 1936	22,143,839
Region VII:						
Alabama	201,147	191,742	9,302	1,396	Jan. 1938	20,023,981
Florida	403,384	370,235	33,149	5,346	Jan. 1939	15,007,109
Georgia	252,150	243,490	8,660	5,355	do	10,393,446
Mississippi	122,655	118,827	3,815	1,327	Apr. 1938	6,595,438
South Carolina	145,150	138,649	6,419	2,439	July 1938	6,721,554
Tennessee	368,612	352,626	15,986	9,263	Jan. 1938	21,171,481
Region VIII:						
Iowa	77,931	72,586	5,320	1,146	July 1938	14,209,960
Minnesota	299,958	272,272	27,686	17,608	Jan. 1938	32,020,105
Nebraska	56,194	51,847	4,347	2,163	Jan. 1939	4,351,340
North Dakota	14,216	12,597	1,619	704	do	1,651,744
South Dakota	12,686	12,244	442	(*)	do	1,081,619
Region IX:						
Arkansas	80,972	77,917	3,055	1,318	do	6,900,734
Kansas	159,632	147,324	12,308	4,194	do	5,988,338
Missouri	459,306	410,309	48,831	43,334	do	17,481,324
Oklahoma	183,733	170,178	13,555	823	Dec. 1938	10,414,981
Region X:						
Louisiana	524,124	495,030	28,530	11,809	Jan. 1938	23,214,220
New Mexico	35,400	33,424	1,976	590	Dec. 1938	3,178,309
Texas	276,902	255,304	21,570	1,052	Jan. 1938	35,215,881
Region XI:						
Arizona	70,152	67,473	2,679	37	do	5,521,794
Colorado	80,587	75,252	5,317	2,161	Jan. 1939	9,748,667
Idaho	36,068	34,263	1,755	121	Sept. 1938	5,973,447
Montana	71,950	71,950	(*)	(*)	July 1939	6,335,085
Utah	138,593	130,819	7,774	1,163	Jan. 1938	7,118,796
Wyoming	21,623	19,898	1,725	247	Jan. 1939	2,988,075
Region XII:						
California	3,042,826	2,691,435	348,553	191,751	Jan. 1938	175,442,971
Nevada	31,888	30,146	1,742	565	Jan. 1939	2,712,434
Oregon	121,666	106,095	15,423	7,782	Jan. 1938	16,366,805
Washington	244,603	213,018	31,585	18,076	Jan. 1939	20,625,097
Territories:						
Alaska	12,347	12,024	323	0	do	1,155,143
Hawaii	11,421	10,234	1,187	1,049	do	713,300

<sup>1</sup> I. e. Certification that the claimant has completed a waiting-period week or a compensable period.<sup>2</sup> Benefits for partial and part-total unemployment are not provided by State law in Montana, New York, and Pennsylvania.<sup>3</sup> Includes supplemental payments, not classified by type of unemployment.<sup>4</sup> Not adjusted for returned and voided benefit checks.<sup>5</sup> Adjusted to exclude returned and voided benefit checks.<sup>6</sup> Data for partial unemployment included with data for part-total unemployment.

*Claims Received*

With a substantial increase in continued-claims receipts for all types of unemployment during the last week of November, the weekly average for the month rose 13 percent to 630,600. The 73,000 more claims received in the last week than in the preceding week were due largely to the carry-over of operations interrupted by the November 20 Thanksgiving holiday in 34 jurisdictions.

While continued claims were 2 percent higher than in October, they were fewer than in any other month since 1939. Waiting-period claims increased 3.3 percent over October, but claims for compensable weeks of unemployment rose only half as much. Among the 15 States having the largest war-industry contracts, 10 reported increases in claims receipts ranging from 3 percent in Indiana to 40 percent in Washington and averaging 6.7 percent. In addition to the other five war-industry States, 14 other jurisdictions reported declines in claims receipts.



### SICKNESS INSURANCE FOR INSURANCE PENSIONERS IN GERMANY

A UNIFIED sickness insurance program for persons receiving social-insurance pensions of various kinds in Germany was established by a decree of November 8, 1941.<sup>1</sup> The law was retroactive to August 1, 1941, and covers persons receiving social insurance pensions either for age, disability, widowhood, orphanage, or retirement.

Sickness insurance is automatically applied from the date on which the first pension payment is made and ends with the last payment, although it may be continued on a voluntary basis if the insured person gives notification within 6 weeks of his intention to continue the payment of the insurance premiums. Premiums amount to an average of 3.30 reichsmarks per month. By the payment of slightly increased premiums, supplementary sickness insurance, burial insurance, and family insurance may also be taken out. Sickness-insurance contracts with other companies may be transferred through arrangement with the competent local authorities.

<sup>1</sup> Report from Sam E. Woods, Commercial Attaché, United States Embassy at Berlin.

# *Employment Services*

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## **PLACEMENT WORK OF PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT SERVICES, NOVEMBER 1941<sup>1</sup>**

PLACEMENTS made by public employment offices registered a sharper-than-usual October-November decrease, the 406,800 jobs filled in November being 25 percent fewer than in October and representing the lowest volume of placements in any month since March. However, November placements were 12 percent more numerous than in the same month of 1940. Job applications also declined to 1,300,000, or 11 percent below the October figure, but the active file remained at practically the same level, 4,200,000.

Seasonal reductions in certain industries and the effect of material shortages and priorities explain some of the drop in placements, but the smaller number of working days in the month accounts for the major part of the decline. October had 25 working days, whereas November, with five Saturdays and Sundays and three midweek holidays in most States, had only 19½. Adjusted for this loss in working time, the decline in placements would amount to only 3.2 percent.

### *Placements*

Every State shared in the Nation-wide decline in placements, with 35 States reporting decreases of 20 percent or more. The drop in placements was sharpest among the agricultural States, a pattern which is normal after large-scale hires for harvest work. Substantial declines, ranging from 40 to 56 percent, occurred in North Dakota, Wyoming, Tennessee, Montana, Idaho, Mississippi, Georgia, New Mexico, and Virginia. In addition to the loss of working time, seasonal slackening in agricultural, canning, lumbering, and construction operations, curtailments in a number of nonwar industries, and a leveling off of defense activity in many areas contributed to the declines.

As a group, the 15 States to which the largest volumes of defense contracts have been awarded showed a decline of only 22 percent as compared with a decline of 29 percent for all other States. Adjusted

<sup>1</sup> Prepared by Reports and Analysis Division, Bureau of Employment Security, Social Security Board.

for loss of working days, the war-industry States would actually have shown no decrease in the rate of placements.

The public employment offices in November filled 253,400 jobs with men and 153,400 with women. Jobs filled by men were 9 percent more numerous than in November 1940 and jobs filled by women 17 percent higher. The increases for both men and women over the same month of 1940 were the smallest this year. However, the relative increase for women was larger than for men for the first time since October 1940. Only Arkansas, Hawaii, Texas, and Vermont showed declines in placements for both groups from November 1940. Reductions for men alone were also noted in 14 other States and for women alone in seven others. In Delaware, the District of Columbia, Kentucky, Louisiana, New Jersey, New York, Rhode Island, and West Virginia, more women than men were placed in November 1941.

### Active File

At the end of November, the active file held 4,200,000 registrants, 7 percent below the same month of 1940. Excluding Indiana and Texas, which observe no validity period, the file was larger than 1940 in 13 States. The greatest proportionate increase over November 1940 in the number of individuals actively seeking work through the employment offices was the 134-percent rise in Arkansas. The largest percentage increases were reported by States in the Southeast and Gulf and in the Southwest areas.

TABLE 1.—*Summary of Placement Activities of Public Employment Services, November 1941*

[Data reported by State agencies, corrected to Dec. 23, 1941]

Activity	Number	Percent of change from—		
		October 1941	November 1940	November 1939
Total complete placements.....	406,789	-24.5	+11.5	+40.6
Regular.....	248,695	-26.7	+13.8	+58.6
Temporary.....	158,094	-20.9	+8.0	+19.2
Supplementary placements.....	176,058	-55.5	+30.1	+195.4
Total applications.....	1,327,116	-10.8	-.5	-6.2
Active file.....	4,234,521	+.1	-7.4	-24.9

<sup>1</sup> Based on comparable data; excludes Idaho.

At the end of November 1941, excluding New York, for which data were not reported, the active file of men numbered 2,700,000 and of

women 1,200,000. Based on comparable data, the number of male job seekers actively looking for work was 10 percent lower, but the number of woman job seekers was 4 percent higher than on November 30, 1940. Male registrants were less numerous than on November 30, 1940, in 37 States, and woman registrants were fewer in 25 States.

TABLE 2.—*Summary of Placement Activities for Veterans, November 1941*

[Data reported by State agencies, corrected to Dec. 23, 1941]

Activity	Number	Percent of change from—		
		October 1941	November 1940	November 1939
Total complete placements	12,779	-28.6	+4.6	+25.9
Regular	6,872	-30.9	(1)	(1)
Temporary	5,907	-25.7	(1)	(1)
Total applications	44,005	-9.2	-14.9	-20.8
Active file	2164,006	+2.2	-11.5	-26.4

<sup>1</sup> Total veteran placements by duration not reported prior to 1941.

<sup>2</sup> Excludes New York; data incomplete.

<sup>3</sup> Based on comparable data; excludes New York.

<sup>4</sup> Based on comparable data; excludes Idaho and New York.

TABLE 3.—Activities of Public Employment Services, All Registrants, by State, November 1941

[Data reported by State agencies, corrected to Dec. 23, 1941]

Social Security Board region and State	Complete placements						Supplementary placements	Total applications received	Active file as of Nov. 30, 1941			
	November 1941			January-November 1941					Number	Percent of change from Nov. 30, 1940		
	Number	Percent of change from—		Regular (over 1 month)	Number	Percent of change from Jan.-Nov. 1940						
Number	Oct. 1941	Nov. 1940	Regu-lar (over 1 month)	Number	Percent of change from Jan.-Nov. 1940	Supplementary placements	Number	Percent of change from Oct. 1941	Number	Percent of change from Nov. 30, 1940		
Total	406,789	-24.5	+11.5	248,695	4,998,021	+46.8	176,058	1,327,116	-10.8	4,234,521	+7.4	
Region I:												
Conn.	7,262	-20.2	+0.3	4,877	94,078	+53.9	12	20,620	-2.7	32,980	-44.2	
Maine	3,391	-33.4	+104.2	2,631	42,841	+103.3	0	9,827	-13.1	21,530	-23.8	
Mass.	7,547	-19.1	+37.3	5,968	96,294	+109.2	21	46,836	-17.6	127,703	-3.5	
N. H.	1,741	-24.7	-4.0	1,359	24,014	+10.4	34	5,569	-16.9	11,682	-24.1	
R. I.	1,520	-24.9	+6.3	1,229	22,323	+135.1	0	8,308	-8.6	27,018	-6.2	
Vermont	1,004	-25.4	-30.5	559	12,863	+17.2	57	2,611	-3.0	7,057	-38.0	
Region II:												
New York	43,100	-22.4	+36.6	23,814	510,648	+68.6	473	147,982	-12.6	393,589	-20.9	
Region III:												
Delaware	1,480	-.6	+22.8	705	16,554	+25.9	12	2,635	+2.1	6,639	-26.1	
N. J.	16,716	-5.4	+33.4	8,746	174,277	+62.1	8	43,193	-23.1	150,994	-8.8	
Pa.	17,542	-27.3	+35.9	12,881	216,679	+54.6	1,638	78,512	-24.2	250,530	-18.7	
Region IV:												
D. C.	5,181	-12.9	+9.9	2,331	58,426	+34.2	0	10,691	-15.4	20,190	-25.1	
Maryland	4,858	-20.6	+4.0	3,329	66,573	+52.6	16	19,393	-16.1	31,996	-34.4	
N. C.	8,981	-33.2	-30.1	6,434	169,981	+103.5	566	28,840	-12.3	91,472	+1.8	
Virginia	6,275	-40.2	-6.2	4,015	115,853	+81.3	51	17,852	-26.3	48,041	+4.4	
W. Va.	3,169	-37.0	-13.3	1,928	42,732	+39.0	126	14,111	-5.3	46,500	-19.7	
Region V:												
Kentucky	3,215	-23.2	-.4	2,055	42,942	+44.1	75	16,813	-14.3	70,519	-18.8	
Michigan	12,852	-20.4	+4.1	8,337	154,377	+26.4	288	45,837	-20.4	122,132	-18.4	
Ohio	22,475	-21.5	+25.7	12,426	267,824	+60.3	247	61,882	-7.8	188,417	-41.8	
Region VI:												
Illinois	18,125	-19.5	+13.5	10,827	231,517	+54.9	2,683	106,781	+41.2	201,911	+21.9	
Indiana	10,899	-19.0	+18.8	7,236	138,826	+58.0	558	31,294	-14.8	230,960	+63.0	
Wisconsin	8,079	-21.2	+13.6	4,374	106,605	+42.8	405	25,049	-1.9	70,981	-28.5	
Region VII:												
Alabama	4,750	-22.1	+34.1	3,568	60,681	+28.8	417	20,381	-18.6	85,993	-3.8	
Florida	6,937	-4.9	-59.4	5,534	66,903	+26.6	362	21,918	+4.7	99,247	+29.8	
Georgia	7,379	-44.0	+12.5	5,215	108,488	+21.4	72	25,751	-36.7	94,599	-31.6	
Miss.	3,800	-47.1	+4.9	3,193	63,245	+33.4	78	20,573	-30.1	82,842	+25.4	
S. C.	5,157	-27.7	+88.9	4,028	80,033	+145.5	230	14,715	-36.7	62,788	+49.0	
Tennessee	6,508	-41.3	+2.4	4,611	94,758	+64.1	36,589	21,676	+1.6	129,817	+17.2	
Region VIII:												
Iowa	8,518	-19.8	+31.0	4,952	90,853	+25.4	1,672	16,704	-12.3	53,050	-28.9	
Minn.	6,925	-33.3	+16.2	3,475	87,202	+29.7	267	28,890	-2.1	77,702	-28.2	
Nebraska	3,205	-32.5	+36.9	1,658	39,246	+23.5	125	8,523	+.2	39,929	+3.8	
N. Dak.	2,859	-56.0	+15.8	1,054	47,455	+20.7	948	5,144	-36.6	22,002	-5.5	
S. Dak.	1,527	-29.3	+2.5	701	19,976	+19.4	1,204	4,564	-15.1	17,183	-19.8	
Region IX:												
Arkansas	6,153	-32.2	-39.4	4,781	75,317	+20.1	29,341	22,680	+2.6	89,926	+134.2	
Kansas	7,382	-24.4	+86.5	3,863	80,946	+78.3	781	16,989	-15.2	59,482	+11.1	
Missouri	13,051	-37.9	+69.1	9,275	164,277	+88.6	986	42,492	-19.3	184,337	+16.2	
Oklahoma	5,150	-7.4	+51.7	2,192	50,361	-6.0	8,012	20,282	-5.5	89,552	+95.6	
Region X:												
Louisiana	5,846	-22.6	-57.9	4,301	68,632	+30.8	1,311	20,578	-13.4	123,035	+9.4	
N. Mex.	3,493	-40.1	+41.2	1,468	25,918	+39.0	3,964	5,422	+34.5	21,793	-11.5	
Texas	30,726	-18.6	-22.3	15,287	367,336	+12.6	55,982	65,562	-.2	280,691	+27.4	
Region XI:												
Arizona	2,074	-14.1	-13.9	1,115	27,499	-4.2	5,928	4,439	-11.9	16,767	-5.9	
Colorado	3,369	-16.2	-15.9	1,860	45,606	-22.1	2,277	11,286	+7.5	46,178	-8.6	
Idaho	2,370	-46.9	-10.6	1,113	35,435	+20.5	1,417	4,321	+13.6	19,560	(2)	
Montana	1,435	-51.3	+26.5	1,000	25,987	+26.9	429	5,210	+1.1	10,439	-40.6	
Utah	2,786	-29.0	+28.0	1,176	28,181	+65.4	155	7,916	-26.5	16,272	-32.2	
Wyoming	831	-51.1	-20.7	468	17,330	+55.6	30	2,445	+13.7	5,400	-17.8	
Region XII:												
California	38,410	-19.2	+70.1	22,982	303,062	+64.8	8,551	116,606	-11.6	290,252	-23.3	
Nevada	1,618	-14.2	+87.5	950	19,951	+65.1	66	3,020	-1.7	3,701	-37.2	
Oregon	11,738	-9.9	+97.5	8,030	105,352	+82.1	4,741	16,384	-4.9	23,941	-35.5	
Wash.	5,765	-26.9	+.6	3,440	80,809	-3.9	2,822	25,593	+5.6	31,500	-54.6	
Territories:												
Alaska	786	-15.7	+89.4	630	10,099	+60.8	11	1,103	-22.0	839	-44.6	
Hawaii	811	-20.6	-22.2	705	10,766	+9.5	20	1,313	-38.7	2,845	-61.3	

<sup>1</sup> Based on comparable data; excludes Idaho.<sup>2</sup> Data not comparable.

TABLE 4.—Activities of Public Employment Services for Veterans, by State, November 1941  
 [Data reported by State agencies, corrected to Dec. 23, 1941]

Social Security Board region and State	Complete placements			Total applications received	Active file as of Nov. 30, 1941			
	Number	Percent of change from— <sup>1</sup>			Number	Percent of change from— <sup>1</sup>		
		October 1941	November 1940			Oct. 31, 1941	Nov. 30, 1940	
Total	12,779	-28.6	+4.6	44,005	<sup>2</sup> 164,006	<sup>3</sup> +0.2	<sup>4</sup> -11.5	
Region I:								
Connecticut	285	-7.8	+5.6	623	967	+5.7	-62.8	
Maine	123	-40.3	+86.4	347	1,025	+8.2	-32.8	
Massachusetts	201	-16.9	+28.0	1,718	7,436	-3.4	+65.7	
New Hampshire	83	-17.8	+20.3	225	499	+1.4	-8.3	
Rhode Island	32			196	627	-17.7	-19.2	
Vermont	54	-19.4	-37.2	85	223	+3.2	-60.0	
Region II:								
New York	908	-30.6	+36.1	2,307	(*)			
Region III:								
Delaware	28			82	245	+6.1	-22.2	
New Jersey	283	-18.2	+29.8	985	5,220	+3.6	-2.8	
Pennsylvania	375	-30.7	+33.0	2,675	9,287	-8.2	-28.0	
Region IV:								
District of Columbia	210	+3.4	+28.8	477	1,034	+3.4	-31.8	
Maryland	144	-24.6	-15.8	596	1,239	+1.6	-36.6	
North Carolina	170	-31.7	-50.1	668	2,608	-.5	+2.9	
Virginia	127	-33.8	-12.4	343	1,002	-.4	-27.8	
West Virginia	55	-50.4	-50.9	437	2,306	-5.3	-29.2	
Region V:								
Kentucky	67	-30.1	-20.5	597	2,888	-7.7	-21.0	
Michigan	562	-25.8	+5.6	2,100	7,007	-4.8	+21.5	
Ohio	845	-32.0	+39.2	2,417	8,862	-5.7	-49.8	
Region VI:								
Illinois	609	-20.3	+23.8	3,571	9,433	+31.2	+25.8	
Indiana	300	-15.7	+2.7	866	10,049	-.2	+56.1	
Wisconsin	286	-18.3	+26.0	1,088	5,069	-2.4	-25.0	
Region VII:								
Alabama	89	-21.9	+2.3	567	3,324	-2.0	-12.5	
Florida	152	-34.5	-36.4	1,046	4,916	-4.6	+67.6	
Georgia	190	-34.5	+20.2	695	2,927	-2.7	-18.4	
Mississippi	70	-50.4	-1.4	574	2,828	+4.6	+39.6	
South Carolina	87	-46.6	+3.6	371	1,861	+7.4	+42.7	
Tennessee	124	-30.3	-27.5	813	4,148	+13.2	+1.1	
Region VIII:								
Iowa	502	-23.4	+5.0	649	2,825	-3.8	-42.7	
Minnesota	364	-28.5	+41.6	1,489	5,179	+17.8	-24.4	
Nebraska	208	-28.8	+150.6	413	1,948	-12.6	-17.6	
North Dakota	61	-59.3	0	115	912	+2.7	-10.3	
South Dakota	51	-48.5	-40.0	212	1,067	+5.4	-9.1	
Region IX:								
Arkansas	267	-47.2	-50.5	837	3,582	-11.5	+100.0	
Kansas	309	-33.0	+114.6	635	3,213	-3.4	-7.4	
Missouri	590	-39.7	+75.6	1,651	7,150	-8.9	-7.1	
Oklahoma	183	-10.7	+36.6	854	5,078	+1.4	+80.8	
Region X:								
Louisiana	89	-35.0	-77.4	412	3,813	+.6	+14.8	
New Mexico	115	-32.4	+36.9	211	1,113	-22.3	-23.4	
Texas	665	-26.6	-46.4	1,330	7,218	-4.1	-2.8	
Region XI:								
Arizona	81	-34.1	-36.2	215	1,068	+5.1	-10.2	
Colorado	101	-25.7	-15.1	463	1,914	+5.6	-19.3	
Idaho	144	-47.8	-9.4	197	1,140	-2.1	(*)	
Montana	70	-57.6	+6.1	268	764	+22.2	-33.8	
Utah	93	-32.1	+19.2	226	530	-4.2	-54.2	
Wyoming	38			122	331	+13.7	-21.4	
Region XII:								
California	1,590	-24.4	+39.4	5,294	14,612	+6.0	-30.0	
Nevada	108	-10.7	+21.3	162	242	+13.1	-25.3	
Oregon	405	-13.5	+60.1	577	1,461	+11.6	-41.3	
Washington	207	-34.1	-44.8	1,097	1,654	+6.1	-58.6	
Territories:								
Alaska	46			82	49			
Hawaii	24			25	104	-15.4	-70.5	

<sup>1</sup> Computed only for States reporting 50 or more in both months.

<sup>2</sup> Excludes New York; data incomplete.

<sup>3</sup> Based on comparable data; excludes New York.

<sup>4</sup> Based on comparable data; excludes Idaho and New York.

<sup>5</sup> Complete data not reported.

<sup>6</sup> Data not comparable.

## FEDERALIZATION OF PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT OFFICES

EFFECTIVE January 1, 1942, the Nation's public employment offices were placed under Federal operation,<sup>1</sup> the Governors of every State and Territory having announced their compliance with the President's request that they authorize the transfer to the United States Employment Service of all the regular personnel, records, and facilities of the State employment agencies. Operation of the United States Employment Service on the Federal level, it was said, will provide a direct administrative line from the Director through the 12 Regional Labor Supply Offices of the service to the individual State and local offices.

It was stated that the United States Employment Service hoped to meet the labor needs of the war industries through a 3-point program: (1) By transferring to war production those workers displaced because of priorities, (2) by making increased use of existing and potential labor reserves, including women, older workers, Negroes, and minority groups against whom there is frequent discrimination, and (3) by making more effective use of those already employed, through upgrading of workers and transfers to war production from less-essential jobs. The training of unskilled or partially skilled workers through Government- or industry-operated training projects is expected to play a large part in the program.

Employees operating the State employment offices may be appointed to positions in the Social Security Board. These positions, however, are to be excluded from the Classification Act "until such time as the Federal Security Administrator shall determine that such positions shall be classified in accordance with the administrative provisions and salary rates of the Classification Act."

Persons so appointed may, subject to the satisfactory completion of a 6-months' probationary period, acquire a competitive classified civil-service status in the Federal service, subject to such regulations as the Civil Service Commission may prescribe.

The unemployment-compensation systems in each State will be operated by the State as heretofore. A plan is to be worked out in each State by which the Federally operated public employment offices, where unemployed workers claiming benefits are required to register, will continue to serve the State agencies administering the unemployment-compensation laws.

<sup>1</sup> Federal Security Agency, Social Security Board, Press releases Nos. 6868 and 6885, December 19 and 31, 1941; and Executive Orders No. 8990 (December 23, 1941) and No. 9008 (January 2, 1942).

# *Labor Laws and Court Decisions*

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## **COURT DECISIONS OF INTEREST TO LABOR**

### *Right of Employer to Express Opinion in Labor Matters*

IN A ruling concerning the National Labor Relations Act, the United States Supreme Court recently held that an employer may express his views freely on labor policies or problems, as long as the statements are not linked with a design to coerce employees, in violation of the act.<sup>1</sup> In themselves, such statements are not a sufficient basis to support a finding that the employer dominated a union. However, the Court held that an employer's statements must be considered as part of his conduct in determining whether there has been a violation.

The case under review resulted from an order of the National Labor Relations Board directing the Virginia Electric & Power Co. to disestablish an independent union of its employees, as being a company-dominated organization. The order of the Board was based on its finding that a bulletin and some speeches made by company officials interfered with, restrained, and coerced the company's employees in the exercise of their rights. The Supreme Court, however, was uncertain as to the correctness of the Board's order. Although the Board held the utterances in the bulletin and speeches to be unfair labor practices, it did not raise them to the stature of coercion by reliance on the surrounding circumstances. Therefore, since the Court was not sufficiently certain whether the Board's decision was based on the whole course of conduct of the employer or merely on the utterances made by him, the case was remanded to the Board for a redetermination of the issues involved.

### *Definition of "Hours Worked" in Underground Mines*

The Montana Supreme Court, in order to avoid conflicting constructions of State and Federal hour laws, has adopted the Wage and Hour Administrator's "portal to portal" ruling in determining the maximum hours of miners under the Montana hour law.<sup>2</sup> Under this rule, the daily hours of labor include time spent by the miners in procuring tools and equipment and in awaiting and making use of the

<sup>1</sup> *National Labor Relations Board v. Virginia Electric & Power Co.* (62 Sup. Ct. 344).

<sup>2</sup> *Butte Miners Union v. Anaconda Copper Mining Co.* (118 Pac. (2d) 148).

employer's transportation facilities. Prior to this interpretation of the Federal Fair Labor Standards Act, the "working-force" interpretation of the State law had been generally assumed by mutual consent of employer and employee. Thus, under the Montana law, hours worked were considered to embrace only time spent at the face of the mine and not to include time spent in procuring tools, etc.

In its decision, the court pointed out that prior to the Federal statute, the State constitutional and statutory provisions alone governed the hours of labor in underground mines. Upon the exercising of the Federal jurisdiction, the Federal statute superseded the State jurisdiction to the extent of any inconsistency, but where not inconsistent the State and Federal provisions jointly governed. However, in order not to make the State and Federal laws "practically inconsistent" and to "avoid a chaotic condition under our dual form of Government," the court considered it desirable "to accept the Federal interpretation of the Federal law" and "to apply it to the State constitutional and legislative provisions."

### *Jurisdiction of Labor Relations Board Sustained by Supreme Court in Two Cases*

The United States Supreme Court refused to review two lower-court decrees enforcing orders of the National Labor Relations Board, thus leaving in effect decisions of these courts sustaining the jurisdiction of the Board. In one case,<sup>3</sup> the Board's power to regulate the labor relations of a lumber company making a very small percentage of interstate sales was upheld, and in the other<sup>4</sup> the Board was held authorized to prevent an unfair labor practice which was also a violation of a contract.

The first case involved a retail lumber company whose interstate sales amounted to only 1 percent of its total sales of about \$200,000, but whose interstate purchases amounted to more than \$150,000. The United States Circuit Court of Appeals at Philadelphia held that the National Labor Relations Board had jurisdiction of unfair labor practices in such a case, and this ruling was left in effect by the Supreme Court. The second case, which was also decided by the Circuit Court in Philadelphia, involved the question of whether the Board had jurisdiction of an unfair labor practice of an employer if it also was in violation of a contract. The court affirmed the jurisdiction of the Board over unfair labor practices regardless of the fact that such practices might also cause a breach of contract.

<sup>3</sup> *Suburban Lumber Co. v. National Labor Relations Board* (62 Sup. Ct. 364); see also 121 Fed. (2d) 829.

<sup>4</sup> *Newark Morning Ledger Co. v. National Labor Relations Board* (62 Sup. Ct. 363); see also 120 Fed. (2d) 262.

### *Wage-Hour "Split Workweek" Rule Upheld*

The Federal District Court for the Southern District of Georgia has upheld the Wage and Hour Division's "split workweek" rule.<sup>5</sup> Under this holding, employees who perform both exempt and nonexempt work in the same week are entitled to receive minimum wages and overtime compensation for all hours in that week. The court said that any other decision would defeat the purposes of the Fair Labor Standards Act by permitting employers to work their employees in covered occupations up to 40 hours a week, then shift the employees to local work not covered by the act for additional hours without overtime compensation.

The decision in this case grew out of a contempt proceeding instituted by the Wage and Hour Division against a lumber company for failure to comply with a consent judgment requiring restitution to its employees. A number of the company's employees worked interchangeably in the retail branch of the business and in the lumber yard. While working in the yard, the employees were considered covered by the act and were paid the statutory minimum wage; but at other times during the week, while working in a local retailing capacity, they were paid a lower wage, with no additional compensation for overtime hours. In computing restitution, the company contended that these employees had been paid as much as the law required. The court, however, agreed with the contention of the Wage and Hour Division, and held that the employees were entitled to minimum wages and overtime for all hours in any week in which they spent any time working in the lumber yard.

<sup>5</sup> *Fleming v. Knaz Bros. Lumber Co.*

## *Cost of Living*

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### **CHANGES IN LIVING COSTS IN LARGE CITIES, DECEMBER 15, 1941**

#### *Summary*

THE advance of 0.3 percent in living costs in large cities in December was the smallest rise in any month since March 1941. Large seasonal declines in prices of a few important foods reduced the total family food bill sufficiently to offset advances in other food prices. House-furnishings and clothing rose sharply between November 15 and December 15, however, and increases in rent, fuel and miscellaneous goods and services also contributed to the advance.

In the last quarter of 1941, as a whole, the cost of living rose 2.2 percent, or to 110.5 percent of the average in 1935-39. As in the previous quarter, the larger increases occurred in cities particularly affected by defense activities. The average rise in the southern cities was greater than in other areas.

For every dollar spent by moderate-income families in August 1939—the month before war broke out in Europe—it was necessary to spend \$1.12 in December 1941, to secure the same level of living as before the war.

*Food.*—Retail prices of most foods rose between mid-November and mid-December of 1941, continuing the advance which had been under way for more than a year, but the increase was moderate in comparison with earlier months. There were large seasonal declines in prices for pork, eggs, and oranges, and lower prices for butter, so that the food-cost index remained unchanged during that month. On December 15, the food of wage earners and clerical workers cost 16 percent more than on the same date of 1940, and 21 percent more than in August 1939 (the month preceding the outbreak of war in Europe).

Retail prices of oranges declined 22 percent between mid-November and mid-December. Both California navel and Florida oranges were late in arriving on the market, creating a scarcity in mid-November. By mid-December, supplies were available in much greater volume, with a consequent price decline. Supplies of pork and eggs were also marketed in increasingly large quantities. Butter prices reflected an

unusually large supply. The Department of Agriculture reported that the supply of butter on hand as of January 1 was the largest that food dealers have ever reported on that date.

Sugar prices, generally very sensitive to war conditions, advanced moderately. After the attack on Pearl Harbor, some grocers voluntarily limited purchases to 2, 5, or 10 pounds per customer; this has been more common since the order of December 13, which froze sugar stocks in the United States and limited supplies available to retailers to their 1940 monthly levels.

In the last quarter of the year, the average food bill of wage earners and clerical workers rose 2.2 percent. By the middle of January, preliminary reports indicated further increases for meats and such staples as navy beans, sugar, and lard. Egg prices continued their seasonal decline.

*Clothing.*—With the further advance of 1 percent in clothing costs between November and December, the family clothing bill in large cities showed an average rise of 3.6 percent for the quarter ending December 15, 1941. In 11 of the 34 large cities surveyed quarterly by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, the increase during the 3-month period exceeded 5 percent. Retail prices for men's work clothing and women's percale dresses continued to show greater increases than most articles of clothing. Shoes for men, women, and children also were reported higher in most cities. Because of the unusually mild weather in the late fall and early winter, the volume of sales of women's coats was less than anticipated. Many stores reduced prices of women's fur-trimmed coats below September levels in order to cut their stock before the year-end inventories.

*Housefurnishings.*—Prices of housefurnishings went up by 1 percent in December, and between September 15 and December 15, 1941, the total cost of housefurnishings customarily purchased by lower-income families increased, on the average, 4.3 percent. On the latter date, housefurnishings cost about 15 percent more than at the end of 1939. In furniture the large price rise has been due primarily to shortages of certain materials and to greatly increased demand resulting from higher consumer incomes. Diversion of materials to national defense efforts and Federal excise taxes have been reflected in the retail prices of electrical equipment which have also risen sharply. Curtailment of imports of wool since war broke out in Europe has caused rugs and carpets made of wool to advance approximately 25 percent. Prices of sheets have risen consistently since the first of 1940 and were reported 25 to 40 percent higher on December 15, 1941, in most cities.

*Rent.*—Changes in rents from November to December differed widely from city to city, averaging 0.4 percent higher for 21 of the

large cities. Over the quarter the increase in the total rent bill averaged 1.3 percent in 34 large cities. The greatest increases occurred in southern cities with large defense contracts. From mid-September to mid-December the largest advances occurred in Mobile where employment in the shipyards of the area rose by more than 40 percent and the average rental bill rose by 14 percent. Increases in rents in Norfolk, Savannah, and Birmingham all exceeded 5 percent. In all 4 of these cities rents were raised for more than two-fifths of the homes rented by white families with moderate incomes.

*Fuel, electricity, and ice.*—With little change in fuel prices in late November and early December, the increase in the cost of fuel, electricity and ice was relatively small in the quarter ending December 15, 1941. Generally, coal and wood prices were a little higher in December than in September. Higher wood prices were largely responsible for the increase in fuel costs in Portland, Oreg. (+5 percent), Atlanta and Mobile, where wood is extensively used for fuel. In Cincinnati, as usual at this time of year, the cost of gas to moderate-income domestic users was reduced, while in New York, the decline of eight-tenths percent in the cost of fuel, electricity, and ice reflected the reduction of the city's sales tax from 2 to 1 percent.

*Miscellaneous.*—Between mid-September and mid-December 1941 automobile prices increased, on the average, from 10 to 15 percent.

The new defense taxes contributed to the increase in the cost of the goods and services included in the miscellaneous group. Taxes on automobiles, tires and tubes, and movies were increased as of October 1, and new excise taxes were placed upon toilet preparations, telephone charges, and railroad fares.

In most cities the cost of barber service, beauty-shop service, and domestic service rose considerably toward the end of 1941. Frequently, employment agencies reported that it was no longer possible to obtain domestic help at wages customarily paid by moderate-income families.

### Percentage Changes in Cost of Goods

Percentage changes in the cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers for 34 cities over the quarter from September 15 to December 15, 1941, are presented in table 1. The Bureau of Labor Statistics collects prices on a shorter list of goods and services in 21 cities during the months other than the regular quarterly periods, March 15, June 15, September 15 and December 15. Table 2 presents percentage changes in these costs in the 21 large cities from November 15 to December 15, 1941.

TABLE 1.—*Percent of Change from September 15 to December 15, 1941, in Cost of Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers, by Groups of Items*

City	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel, electricity and ice	House-furnishings	Miscellaneous
Average: Large cities.....	+2.2	+2.2	+3.6	+1.3	+0.4	+4.3	+2.6
New England:							
Boston.....	+1.7	+1.6	+2.3	+2.1	+.3	+2.8	+1.3
Manchester.....	+1.7	+.4	+3.9	+1.9	+1.4	+3.8	+2.2
Portland, Maine.....	+2.4	+1.4	+3.7	+1.8	+1.1	+6.2	+3.2
Middle Atlantic:							
Buffalo.....	+2.2	+1.1	+3.8	+1.4	+.8	+5.0	+3.1
New York.....	+1.8	+2.5	+1.5	+.1	-.8	+4.0	+2.4
Philadelphia.....	+2.0	+2.1	+3.2	+.3	+.2	+2.8	+2.6
Pittsburgh.....	+1.9	+1.6	+5.8	+.1	-.4	+3.4	+2.6
Scranton.....	+1.5	+1.4	+4.9	-.1	(?)	+4.8	+1.0
East North Central:							
Chicago.....	+1.0	-.7	+3.4	+1.3	+.7	+4.4	+2.2
Cincinnati.....	+2.0	+2.5	+2.5	+1.0	-1.3	+4.3	+2.3
Cleveland.....	+2.2	+.8	+3.9	+3.1	(?)	+4.1	+2.8
Detroit.....	+2.8	+2.3	+5.3	+2.5	+1.4	+4.6	+2.7
Indianapolis.....	+3.3	+3.5	+4.3	+2.0	+.1	+4.6	+3.8
Milwaukee.....	+2.4	+1.2	+4.1	+1.6	+1.3	+6.6	+3.6
West North Central:							
Kansas City.....	+3.1	+2.2	+3.7	+2.8	+.1	+5.0	+4.2
Minneapolis.....	+1.6	-.1	+3.4	+.4	+.2	+3.9	+3.4
St. Louis.....	+2.6	+2.6	+5.6	+1.8	+.4	+5.9	+1.9
South Atlantic:							
Atlanta.....	+2.8	+1.0	+4.8	+1.0	+2.5	+5.4	+4.3
Baltimore.....	+2.6	+2.7	+4.9	+1.3	+.1	+6.4	+2.4
Jacksonville.....	+3.3	+2.4	+6.5	+2.6	+.8	+7.5	+3.4
Norfolk.....	+4.0	+4.0	+3.1	+6.1	+2.0	+5.5	+3.1
Richmond.....	+2.5	+2.5	+5.2	+.1	+1.1	+4.4	+2.6
Savannah.....	+3.1	+1.5	+4.8	+5.2	+1.2	+5.7	+3.4
Washington, D. C.....	+2.8	+2.6	+5.9	+.4	+.5	+5.6	+3.3
East South Central:							
Birmingham.....	+3.6	+2.8	+5.4	+5.7	+2.1	+5.1	+2.7
Memphis.....	+2.6	+2.3	+6.0	+1.8	+.1	+5.9	+1.7
Mobile.....	+5.1	+4.1	+5.5	+14.1	+2.4	+3.9	+2.7
West South Central:							
Houston.....	+3.2	+4.2	+5.3	+.5	+.4	+3.9	+3.3
New Orleans.....	+2.3	+2.1	+4.1	+.8	+1.2	+4.9	+2.7
Mountain:							
Denver.....	+3.2	+4.3	+4.4	+1.2	+.8	+5.5	+2.9
Pacific:							
Los Angeles.....	+3.9	+6.0	+4.5	+1.8	(?)	+4.3	+3.0
Portland, Oregon.....	+2.4	+1.2	+2.6	+1.9	+4.8	+5.7	+3.0
San Francisco.....	+3.2	+4.0	+5.0	+.8	+1.2	+4.0	+3.2
Seattle.....	+2.9	+3.1	+3.5	+3.3	+1.8	+5.1	+2.0

<sup>1</sup> Based on 51 cities.

No change.

TABLE 2  
Goods

New Eng  
Boston  
Man  
Portl  
Middle A  
Buffa  
New  
Philad  
Pitts  
Scra  
East No  
Chic  
Cinc  
Clev  
Detro  
Indi  
Milv  
West N  
Kan  
Min  
St. L  
South A  
Atla  
Balt  
Jack  
Nor  
Rich  
Sav  
Wa  
East S  
Bir  
Mem  
Mo  
West S  
Hou  
Ne  
Mount  
De  
Pacific  
Lo  
Po  
Sa  
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<sup>1</sup> Bas  
<sup>2</sup> Bas  
<sup>3</sup> No  
<sup>4</sup> Mo

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sala  
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TABLE 2.—*Percent of Change from November 15 to December 15, 1941, in Cost of Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers, by Groups of Items*

City	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel, electricity and ice	House-furnishings	Miscellaneous
Average: Large cities.....	+0.3	(1)	+0.9	+0.4	2 +0.1	+1.0	+0.3
New England:							
Boston.....	- .4	-1.3	+ .2	+ .2	(3)	+ .7	+ .1
Manchester.....	(1)	-1.9	(1)	(1)	+ .2	(1)	(1)
Portland, Maine.....	(1)	- .4	(1)	(1)	- .1	(1)	(1)
Middle Atlantic:							
Buffalo.....	+ .4	+ .2	+ .4	+ .4	(3)	+ .8	+ .4
New York.....	(1)	- .5	+ .5	+ .1	(3)	+1.1	+ .4
Philadelphia.....	+ .5	+1.0	+ .3	(3)	(3)	+ .4	+ .2
Pittsburgh.....	+ .5	+ .7	+1.2	+ .1	- .1	+1.0	+ .5
Scranton.....	(1)	+2.1	(1)	(1)	(3)	(1)	(1)
East North Central:							
Chicago.....	- .4	-1.4	+1.1	+ .1	(3)	+1.1	+ .2
Cincinnati.....	- .3	-1.4	+ .9	+ .4	(3)	+1.3	+ .2
Cleveland.....	+ .4	-1.2	+1.5	+2.5	(3)	+1.8	+ .2
Detroit.....	+ .2	- .5	+ .9	+ .6	+ .9	+ .7	+ .2
Indianapolis.....	(1)	+ .3	(1)	(1)	+ .2	(1)	(1)
Milwaukee.....	(1)	- .7	(1)	(1)	(3)	(1)	(1)
West North Central:							
Kansas City.....	+ .4	+ .1	+ .7	(3)	+ .1	+ .5	+ .6
Minneapolis.....	(1)	- .9	+ .9	+ .1	(3)	+1.6	+ .3
St. Louis.....	+ .7	+ .4	+2.4	+1.0	+ .1	+1.5	+ .2
South Atlantic:							
Atlanta.....	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(3)	(1)	(1)
Baltimore.....	+1.0	+1.6	+1.8	+ .1	(3)	+1.3	+ .3
Jacksonville.....	(1)	-1.7	(1)	(1)	+ .4	(1)	(1)
Norfolk.....	(1)	+ .8	(1)	(1)	(3)	(1)	(1)
Richmond.....	(1)	+ .7	(1)	(1)	+1.1	(1)	(1)
Savannah.....	+ .4	- .4	+1.3	+ .8	+ .6	+1.5	+ .6
Washington, D. C.....	+1.0	+1.8	+2.0	(3)	- .1	+2.1	+ .7
East South Central:							
Birmingham.....	+ .4	- .5	+1.4	+1.7	+ .1	+1.3	+ .2
Memphis.....	(1)	+ .7	(1)	(1)	(3)	(1)	(1)
Mobile.....	(1)	+ .4	(1)	(1)	+ .4	(1)	(1)
West South Central:							
Houston.....	+ .2	- .6	+1.3	+ .4	+ .2	+ .7	+ .3
New Orleans.....	(1)	+1.0	(1)	(1)	+ .1	(1)	(1)
Mountain:							
Denver.....	- .3	-1.1	+ .9	(3)	(3)	+ .6	+ .1
Pacific:							
Los Angeles.....	+1.1	+2.8	+1.0	(3)	(3)	+ .7	+ .3
Portland, Oreg.....	(1)	- .3	(1)	(1)	+2.1	(1)	(1)
San Francisco.....	+ .6	+ .9	+1.2	+ .3	+ .1	+ .7	+ .4
Seattle.....	+1.1	+1.4	+1.1	+2.5	+ .8	+ .6	+ .2

<sup>1</sup> Based on data for 51 cities; no change.

<sup>2</sup> Based on data for 34 cities.

<sup>3</sup> No change.

<sup>4</sup> Monthly data not available.

### Indexes of Cost of Goods, 1935 to 1941

Indexes of cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers are shown, by years from 1935 through 1940, and by months for 1941, in table 3.

TABLE 3.—*Indexes of Cost of Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers, by Years, 1935–40, and by Months, 1941*

[Average 1935–39 = 100]

Year	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel, electricity and ice	House-furnishings	Miscellaneous
1935	98.1	100.4	96.8	94.2	100.7	94.8	98.1
1936	99.1	101.3	97.6	96.4	100.2	96.3	98.7
1937	102.7	105.3	102.8	100.9	100.2	104.3	101.0
1938	100.8	97.8	102.2	104.1	99.9	103.3	101.5
1939	99.4	95.2	100.5	104.3	99.0	101.3	100.7
1940	100.2	96.6	101.7	104.6	99.7	100.5	101.1
1941:							
Jan. 15	100.8	97.8	100.7	105.0	100.8	100.1	101.9
Feb. 15	100.8	97.9	100.4	105.1	100.6	100.4	101.9
Mar. 15	101.2	98.4	102.1	105.1	100.7	101.6	101.9
April 15	102.2	100.6	102.4	105.4	101.0	102.4	102.2
May 15	102.9	102.1	102.8	105.7	101.1	103.2	102.5
June 15	104.6	105.9	103.3	105.8	101.4	105.3	103.3
July 15	105.3	106.7	104.8	106.1	102.3	107.4	103.7
Aug. 15	106.2	108.0	106.9	106.3	103.2	108.9	104.0
Sept. 15	108.1	110.7	110.8	106.8	103.7	112.0	105.0
Oct. 15	109.3	111.6	112.6	107.5	104.0	114.4	106.9
Nov. 15	110.2	113.1	113.8	107.8	104.0	115.6	107.4
Dec. 15	110.5	113.1	114.8	108.2	104.1	116.8	107.7

## *Standards of Living*

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### **MAXIMUM RENTALS IN CANADA AFTER DECEMBER 1, 1941<sup>1</sup>**

IN Canada on and after December 1, 1941, the maximum rental at which any real property may be offered for rent or rented shall be (a) the rental lawfully payable under a lease in effect on October 11, 1941, or (b) if no lease was in effect on October 11, 1941, but was in effect at some period since January 1, 1940, the lawful rent payable under the latest lease in effect since the latter date. For other real property the maximum rental shall be that which may be determined from time to time by or under an order of the Wartime Prices and Trade Board.

The above provisions do not supersede or affect any maximum rental previously fixed by an order of the Board or by the Rentals Administrator or his deputy, or by a rental committee with approval of the Rentals Administrator or his deputy, nor shall they "be deemed to derogate from any power conferred on the Board by the Wartime Leasehold Regulations."

Any person guilty of contravention or failure to observe any regulation, order, or requirement of these regulations is liable upon indictment or upon summary conviction to a penalty not to exceed \$5,000 or to imprisonment for a term not to exceed 2 years or both.

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### **RATIONING OF CANNED FOODS IN GREAT BRITAIN**

A NEW system of food rationing for canned meat, fish, and beans was instituted in Great Britain December 1, 1941.<sup>2</sup> For these foods, which had formerly had a chance distribution, 16 coupons of 1 point each are issued for each month, and the coupons may be used at any time in the month, at any shop, and in any town. This system of "points" without registration or restriction to any particular retailer, which has been used in the clothes-rationing scheme, was regarded as both equitable and convenient. The new system was originally planned to come into effect in the middle of November; but as about 80,000,000 pounds of foodstuffs had to be transported to some 250,000 traders to meet the new coupons, it was necessary to delay putting the system into effect until the supplies could be distributed to the more remote areas. For certain foods 16 points have to be given for each can, for others, 12, 8, and 4 points.

<sup>1</sup> Canada Gazette (Ottawa), Extra, No. 128, December 30, 1941.

<sup>2</sup> Data are from the Manchester Guardian Weekly, November 7 and 21, 1941; and The Local Government Chronicle (London), November 22, 1941.

## *Vacations With Pay*

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### **PAID VACATIONS FOR SALARIED EMPLOYEES IN DOMINICAN REPUBLIC**

SALARIED employees in commercial and other establishments in the Dominican Republic are granted 2 weeks' vacation with pay, by a law passed March 17, 1941.<sup>1</sup> Permanent employees, who are paid on a weekly, fortnightly, monthly, or other fixed basis, are entitled to the vacation if they have been employed in the enterprise for more than a year without interruption. Absence on account of sickness does not disqualify an employee for vacation.

The vacation periods are fixed by the managers or directors of the enterprises for the different calendar quarters of the year, in such a manner that the vacations will not interfere with the efficiency or normal working of the establishment. At the end of each calendar quarter the list of employees who will take their vacations in the next quarter will be posted. Changes may be made in these lists until the third calendar quarter, but any employees removed from the list must be given their vacations in the following quarter. Each employee is required to sign this list at the beginning of his vacation as evidence that the vacation has been granted. In case an employee is not given a vacation after he has made application in writing, he is entitled to compensation equal to 1 month's pay in addition to his salary, and may enforce payment of this compensation by legal proceedings even after he has ceased to be employed by the establishment, if he has instituted such proceedings within 1 month from the date on which his employment terminated. This right is forfeited if an employee has refrained from claiming his vacation, for the purpose of obtaining the compensation.

Any head, director, or manager of an undertaking who, by threats or other form of coercion, obtains from an employee an acknowledgment of the granting of a vacation which the employee has not actually been granted, is liable to a fine of not less than 25 nor more than 200 pesos.

During 1941 the vacations granted were limited to 1 week.

The Ministry of Agriculture, Industry, and Labor has supervision of the observance of the act.

<sup>1</sup> International Labor Office (Montreal). Legislative Series 1941—Dom. 2.

# *Wage and Hour Statistics*

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## **WAGES, HOURS, AND WORKING CONDITIONS OF UNION STREET-RAILWAY EMPLOYEES, JUNE 1, 1941<sup>1</sup>**

THE average hourly wage rate of union motormen, conductors, and bus operators in 59 cities was 79.2 cents on June 1, 1941. This average covers operators employed on local lines and also those employed on city-suburban lines which furnish local service. Employees of strictly intercity lines are not included.

The index of hourly rates advanced 3.6 percent during the period June 1, 1940, to June 1, 1941, to a new index of 114.4 (1929=100). The advance during the year was the greatest since a comparable period between 1936 and 1937 when rates went up 4.7 percent, on the average (table 1). Beginning in 1934, wage rates as indicated by union agreements for street railways have advanced steadily, showing a 19-percent rise since the low point in 1934. Prior to this upward movement, wage rates had declined during the years from 1931 to 1934 after registering a slight gain in 1930 and remaining stationary in 1931.

TABLE 1.—*Indexes of Union Hourly Wage Rates of Street-Railway Motormen, Conductors, and Bus Drivers, 1929 to 1941*

[1929=100.0]

Year	Index	Year	Index
1929	100.0	1936	100.6
1930	101.0	1937	105.3
1931	101.0	1938	108.3
1932	99.0	1939	109.2
1933	(1)	1940	110.4
1934	96.1	1941	114.1
1935	99.8		

<sup>1</sup> Not available.

### *Scope and Method of the Wage Study*

This study is one of a series of annual surveys started in 1921. In 1941 the Bureau's agents visited 75 cities and obtained reports of effective union scales for street-railway or bus operators in 59 of those cities.

<sup>1</sup> Prepared by Kermit B. Mohn, under the direction of Florence Peterson, chief of the Bureau's Industrial Relations Division.

The rates reported were those in effect on June 1, 1941. Whenever possible the comparable rates in effect on June 1, 1940, were also reported. The 1941 survey included 450 quotations of rates, 430 of which included comparable data for 1941 and 1940. The union members covered by these contractual wage rates numbered 70,361, of whom 69,334 were included in the reports which gave comparable rates for 1940.

The average rate and the index numbers presented in this report are weighted according to the number of union members receiving each rate. Each rate was multiplied by the number of members to whom it was reported to apply. The resulting aggregates were added and their sum divided by the total number of members used in the weighting. The average thus reflects not only the actual rates provided in union agreements, but also the number of members benefiting from those scales.

The percent of change from the previous year is the ratio between similar aggregates computed from the rates quoted for identical unions and service classifications in both years. The weights in both of the aggregates used in each year-to-year comparison were the membership figures reported in the second year. The current index number was computed by multiplying the index of the previous year by the ratio so obtained.

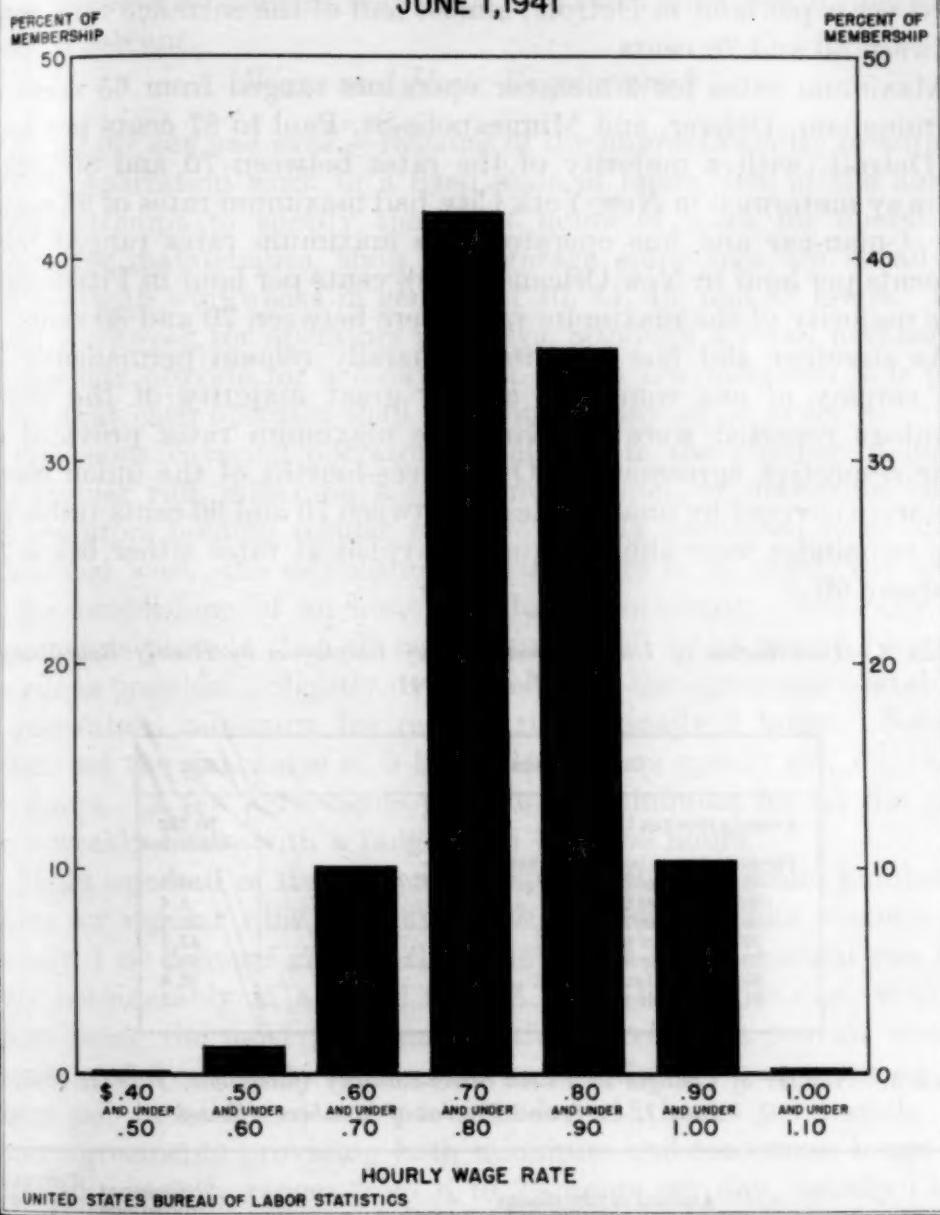
*Caution.*—Because of changes in coverage, the averages should not be compared from year to year to determine trend. For trend purposes the index numbers (table 1) should be used, since these were computed from comparable quotations only and the influence of changes in coverage has been eliminated. For comparison of the general wage level of street-railway and bus operations with those of other occupations at the time the survey was made, the average (table 2) should be used.

### *Hourly Wage Rates*

Hourly wage rates in street-railway and bus operations are generally graduated on the basis of an employee's length of service with the company. Most frequently the agreements provide for an entrance rate, an intermediate rate, and a maximum rate. A considerable number, however, specify several intermediate periods, each with successively higher rates. The specified time for the rate steps varies widely from city to city. The entrance-rate period is usually 3, 6, or 12 months. The maximum rate most frequently applies after either 1 or 2 years of service, but many agreements provide for longer periods, ranging up to 5 years and including as many as 12 progressive rate steps. The differences between the entrance rates and the maximum rates ranged from 2½ to 32 cents per hour in 1941, the most frequently reported differences being either 5 or 10 cents.

## DISTRIBUTION OF WAGE RATES OF UNION STREET-RAILWAY EMPLOYEES

JUNE 1, 1941



Rates for operators of 2-man cars were reported in only 18 of the 59 cities included in the survey. In each of these cities the agreements provided higher rates for 1-man-car operators and bus drivers than for motormen and conductors on 2-man cars. Generally, the rates for bus drivers were the same as for 1-man-car operators. The differences in favor of 1-man-car operators ranged from 3 to 10 cents per hour, the most common difference being 7 cents.

The entrance rates for 2-man-car operators ranged from 56 cents per hour in St. Louis to 80 cents per hour in Chicago. The entrance

rate for some of the subway motormen in New York City was 85.8 cents. However, the majority of entrance rates were between 60 and 70 cents. For 1-man-car and bus operators the range of entrance rates was from 46 cents per hour in Little Rock and some in New York to 84 cents per hour in Detroit; almost half of the entrance rates were between 60 and 70 cents.

Maximum rates for 2-man-car operators ranged from 65 cents in Birmingham, Denver, and Minneapolis-St. Paul to 87 cents per hour in Detroit, with a majority of the rates between 70 and 80 cents. Subway motormen in New York City had maximum rates of 96 cents. For 1-man-car and bus operators the maximum rates ranged from 53 cents per hour in New Orleans to 95½ cents per hour in Pittsburgh. The majority of the maximum rates were between 70 and 80 cents.

As streetcar and bus operators generally remain permanently in the employ of one company, a very great majority of the union members reported were receiving the maximum rates provided in their respective agreements. Over three-fourths of the union members were covered by union scales of between 70 and 90 cents (table 2). The remainder were almost equally divided at rates either below 70 or above 90.

TABLE 2.—*Distribution of Union Street-Railway Employees by Hourly Rate Groups, June 1, 1941*

Classified hourly rates	1941
Average rate per hour.....	\$0.792
Percent of members whose rates were—	
40 and under 50 cents.....	0.1
50 and under 60 cents.....	1.4
60 and under 70 cents.....	10.1
70 and under 80 cents.....	42.3
80 and under 90 cents.....	35.5
90 cents and under \$1.....	10.4
\$1 and under \$1.10.....	.2

TABLE 3.—*Number of Changes in Union Street-Railway Quotations, June 1, 1940, to June 1, 1941, and Percent of Members Affected*

Amount of rate change	Number of quotations	Percent of members affected
No change reported.....	153	37.9
Decreases reported.....	2	.4
Increases reported.....	190	61.7
Less than 2 percent.....	14	3.8
2 and less than 4 percent.....	32	12.2
4 and less than 6 percent.....	31	10.4
6 and less than 8 percent.....	54	27.1
8 and less than 10 percent.....	26	2.5
10 and less than 12 percent.....	15	1.4
12 and less than 14 percent.....	6	.6
14 and less than 16 percent.....	4	2.1
16 and less than 18 percent.....	2	.3
18 and less than 20 percent.....	2	.7
20 percent and over.....	4	.6

About 55 percent of the quotations of union scales provided for increases during the year June 1, 1940, to June 1, 1941 (table 3). These raises benefited approximately 62 percent of the total membership covered in the survey. Of the organized workers receiving increases, about 80 percent had their 1940 rates advanced by between 2 and 8 percent.

### *Wage and Hour Regulations<sup>2</sup>*

*Hours per day and week.*—Because of the impracticability of adjusting transportation work to a fixed scale of hours, few of the agreements attempt to specify the exact hours of work for operators. Hours for maintenance, shop, and garage employees are usually 8 per day with workweeks in general of 40, 44, 45, and 48 hours. The usual workweek for operators is 6 days, although a small number of agreements provide for a 5-day week. In a few instances it is provided that each operator shall have only 1 day off in every 8.

Provisions covering operators usually state the number of hours per regular run, either on a minimum, normal, or maximum basis. As operators holding regular runs are usually prevented from doing additional work, the establishing of run-hours is, in effect, the same as the establishing of an hour scale for the operator. Generally the agreements provide that all regular runs shall be as near 8 hours in length as possible. Slightly over one-half of the agreements establish a guaranteed minimum for regular runs, usually 8 hours. Several others set the guarantee at 9 hours and others specify 6½, 7½, 7¾, or 8½ hours. A few agreements provide the minimum for regular runs on a weekly basis, with a range from 40 to 50 hours.

About one-half of the agreements specify the maximum number of hours for regular runs per day, week, or month. The maxima are usually 1 or 2 hours greater than the length of the normal run and vary considerably in a range from 8 to 11 hours per day, with 10 hours being the most prevalent. Other agreements provide weekly maxima of from 48 to 65 hours, two specify the maximum as 270 hours per month, and one provides for 215 hours per month. In those agreements providing both minimum and maximum hours the interval generally ranges from ½ to 2½ hours per day, usually 1 or 2.

As there are wide variations in the demand for transportation at different hours of the day, the agreements permit the creation of "swing" runs composed of two or more short daily assignments. This privilege is generally limited by the requirement that a majority of runs shall be straight and that the day's swing runs must be completed within a specified number of hours. The maximum permitted

<sup>2</sup> The analysis contained in this section, as well as those following, is not restricted to agreements in the cities included in the previous section relating to wage rates, but includes all agreements in the Bureau's files, except those covering companies engaged in strictly intercity or interstate transportation. Altogether, 160 agreements are included in the analysis.

ranges as high as 16 hours, although 14 hours is most commonly specified. A number of others list the spread as 12, 13, or 13½ hours. Generally, the intervening time between parts of these swing or split assignments is paid for when the interval does not exceed 1 hour.

*Rest days.*—In order to maintain continuous service, the weekly rest days (required for each employee under most agreements) must be distributed throughout the week. Assignments of regular runs are generally prepared on a 6-day basis, and the scheduled day off for any individual depends upon his selection of a run at the periodic "pick." Work on an employee's rest day is allowed only in an emergency, and penalty rates for such work are very often provided.

Specific provision for Sunday work is not made in a majority of the agreements. However, a number of the agreements state that a greater percentage of runs must be straight on Sundays than during the week. In addition, those agreements providing a guaranteed minimum for regular runs often specify that this minimum shall be less on Sundays than during the week.

*Extra runs.*—The agreements generally provide that all runs not regularly scheduled and all short runs which cannot be combined into regular assignments shall be reserved for men on the extra list. All substitutions for regular operators are also reserved for men on the extra list. These extra men are usually required to report for assignment twice each day, and most agreements specify the minimum pay for making these reports. These guaranties vary widely. In some agreements extra men are guaranteed 1 or 2 hours' pay for each report, or a specified number of hours each day or week; in others the guaranty is a minimum amount of pay each day, week, or month. The time guaranties range from 1 or 2 to 8 hours per day, 30 to 36 hours per week, or 100 to 162 hours per month; cash guaranties range from \$2 to \$4.08 per day, \$15 to \$25 per week, or from \$60 to \$110 per month. In all cases these guaranties are contingent upon the extra men making all required reports, disallowances for "misses" (tardiness) being deducted on a pro rata basis.

*Overtime.*—Overtime work in street-railway operations is generally defined, not as time worked in excess of a specified number of hours, but rather as time worked in excess of that required to complete a run or assignment. About one-half of the agreements definitely state the maximum number of hours a run may be paid for at straight time, 10 hours being the most prevalent. It is customary in street-railway agreements to require that all work outside the regular assignments be given to men on the extra list, whenever they are available, and therefore overtime of this type is not frequently required. However, if a man holding a regular run is required to perform extra work, except in emergencies, he is generally paid at the overtime rate and quite often is guaranteed a specified number of hours, usually 2, at the penalty scale. However, in those agree-

ments permitting operators to work from the extra board after their regular runs have been completed, the operators receive straight time only for such assignments given them. Operators called to work on their regular day off are very often paid the overtime rate and are often guaranteed 4, 5, or 6 hours.

The overtime rate in street-railway agreements is almost universally time and one-half. Slightly over three-fourths of the quotations, covering over 84 percent of the organized workers included in the current survey, were listed at this rate. Agreements covering only 9.5 percent of the members failed to provide a penalty rate. Six percent were slated to receive other penalty scales and in 1 quotation, covering but one-tenth of 1 percent of the total members, overtime was prohibited.

*Transfer rates.*—Street-railway and bus operators are almost universally required to be paid the classified rate for the particular work performed. A few agreements, however, require that regular operators temporarily transferred to runs not their own shall be guaranteed the schedule time of their own runs and, if given work not on the cars or busses, shall be paid whichever rate is higher, their own or that of the temporary work.

The provisions relating to shop or garage workers sometimes provide that the employee shall receive his own rate while temporarily working in another classification, provided the assignment does not extend beyond a specified period, which may be as long as 15 days. More frequently, however, such workers are required to be paid the higher rate applying to the two classifications.

*Differentials for disabled and older workers.*—Very few of the agreements contain any provisions regarding disabled or older workers. A small number specify that employees of long service who are incapable of continuing their regular duties shall be given preference for any employment the company may have which they can perform. No differentials or concessions are provided for the older or disabled worker in the regularly classified occupations.

*Allowances.*—Nearly all of the agreements specify some allowances for various incidental duties of the streetcar and bus operators. A period of from 5 to 15 minutes is frequently allowed at the beginning and end of runs for the purpose of getting the car ready for service and for returning it to the barn and making out the required daily reports. An allowance is usually specified for making out accident reports, and it is generally provided that employees required to look up evidence in connection with accidents shall be paid at their regular rates. Time spent in going to court in connection with accident cases is generally required to be paid for at straight time.

It is frequently specified that traveling time between the barn and relief points shall be paid for when crews are changed away from the barn. Time spent instructing student operators is usually rated from

5 to 10 cents an hour higher than the regular rate. Similar additions to the regular rate are frequently specified for work on snow plows and sweepers, or for runs on which the operators must handle newspapers or packages.

It is generally provided that uniforms are to be furnished by the employees, subject to the specifications of the company. Many of the agreements state that these may be purchased in the open market or through the union. Only a very few provide that uniforms shall be furnished or partially paid for by the company.

Nearly all of the agreements specifically provide that employees shall be entitled to ride free on any line of the company. A few extend this privilege to the members of the employees' families.

A few agreements provide for group-insurance policies to be paid for by the company and a few others provide sick and accident benefits.

### *Union Status*

*Unionization.*—Union agreements covering street-railway and bus employees are in existence in almost three-fourths of the cities of over 100,000 population. Smaller cities are less well organized although a considerable number of agreements have been made.

Practically all of the agreements have been made by locals of the Amalgamated Association of Street, Electric Railway and Motor Coach Operators of America (A. F. of L.) except in New York City and Philadelphia. In New York most of the agreements were made with the Transport Workers' Union (C. I. O.) and in Philadelphia with the Philadelphia Rapid Transit Employees' Union (nonaffiliated).

The agreements studied were universally negotiated between local unions and individual transportation companies. In the few cities having more than one transportation company, separate agreements exist with each company. As a rule, these agreements are not uniform, but vary in details to meet the different conditions in the separate companies. Generally, the membership of each local union includes employees of only one company. In a few instances, where the companies operate large transportation systems with widely separated barns, or with an extremely large number of employees, the employees are divided among several locals. In such cases only one agreement between the company and the joint local unions is customary.

*Union recognition.*—Almost half (75 out of 160) of the agreements studied provide for the closed or union shop, with the companies agreeing to enforce the provision by discharging any employee who fails to join or maintain his membership, or who is expelled from the union. Seven additional agreements provide that all new employees must become union members. The latter are usually allowed a certain number of days, generally a probationary period, in which to make

application for membership. One agreement states that "all employees of the company coming within the classifications covered by this agreement, after 1 month's continuous employment, shall be required to share equally in the cost of maintaining and operating the collective-bargaining agency."

About 10 percent of the agreements have the maintenance-of-membership clause, whereby an employee belonging to the union at the time the agreement went into effect, or one who subsequently joins the union, must maintain his membership as a condition of continued employment. In four additional agreements "the company recommends that all employees now in the association remain members and recommends that all new men that may enter the service and who are eligible to the association become and remain members during the life of the contract. The company prefers to deal with the employees through the association."

In the remaining agreements, about a third of the total, the employee recognizes the union as the bargaining agent for all the union members and for all the classifications of jobs included in the terms of the agreement. Most of these specify that membership shall be entirely optional with the individual employees and that there shall be no discrimination or coercion to compel any employee to join or not to join the union. Several agreements specifically state that the members of the union bargaining committee must be company employees.

*Employees covered by agreements.*—A majority of the agreements cover workers in the company shops, garages, barns, and maintenance departments in addition to the operating employees. A few agreements also include linemen. A considerable number include provisions relating only to motormen, conductors, and bus drivers. These, however, are mainly from the smaller cities. Clerical employees are seldom included in the agreements; in fact, a small number specifically exclude workers in the general offices of the company.

Foremen, superintendents, managers, and other company officials who have the duty of administering discipline are excluded from membership in the Amalgamated Association by a constitutional provision. Working foremen, starters, dispatchers, timekeepers, inspectors, and street men are permitted to be members, but not to participate in the meetings or activities of the union while holding such positions. The agreements, therefore, do not specify wage rates or working conditions for these positions.

About half of the agreements provide for a probationary period, during which new employees are specifically excluded from the agreement benefits other than the wage-rate provisions. Until this probation has been completed the employee has no right to appeal to the union with respect to any grievance, discipline, or his discharge. The period of probation is most frequently either 60 or 90 days, although

a number of agreements specify 30 days and several others provide for a 6-month probation.

**Check-off.**—About one-fourth of the agreements provide that the company shall deduct the amount of union dues and assessments from the pay of union members. In practically all of these cases individual authorizations for the deductions must be obtained, although in several cases no mention of authorization is made. In one or two instances the employee's wife is also required to sign the authorization. Several agreements not providing for the check-off permit the collection of dues on company property on pay days or other selected times.

**Hiring.**—Except in a very few cases, street-railway agreements do not require new employees to be hired through the union office, nor do they require new men to be union members before starting to work. However, one agreement specifically states that "the company will notify the union of the need of additional men and the union agrees to furnish competent candidates." In two other cases the union "agrees to furnish extra men daily to fully and adequately protect all regular runs," and in two others the union "agrees to cooperate with the company in an honest endeavor to supply sober and physically capable men needed by the company in the operation and maintenance of its busses." In addition to the above-mentioned exceptions, two agreements provide for a union committee to investigate and pass upon prospective motor-coach operators before they are employed by the company.

**Bulletin boards.**—The agreements frequently provide that bulletin boards shall be maintained at each barn, upon which the union may post notices of interest to its members. Generally no restrictions are placed upon the kind of notices that may be posted, although a few require that the notices be approved by the company and that they be confined strictly to general union business.

**Job restrictions.**—Detailed work regulations are not often made a part of the streetcar and bus operators' agreements. A number, by reference, indicate that the regulations shall be as issued by the company, but that the union shall have the right to discuss any proposed changes with the company officials before they are made effective.

**Access to plant and records.**—A small number of the agreements provide that representatives of the union may interview shop or garage men on union business during working hours. This privilege is not, however, extended to include interviewing operators while they are on duty.

A few agreements specify that union representatives may be present at the barn on pay days for the purpose of making dues collections. Several agreements specify that service records of members shall be open to inspection by the union, and a number require that a

union representative be present at each selection of runs or uniform inspection.

*Leave for union officials.*—Practically all the agreements provide that if an employee is elected or appointed to a full-time union office, he shall be granted leave for the duration of his term without impairment of his seniority rights, provided he makes application for reemployment within a limited time after leaving office. Several agreements specifically state that seniority in these cases shall be cumulative.

### *Leave Provisions*

Leave of absence without pay for personal reasons is provided in about half of the agreements. The amount of leave is generally limited to 30 or 60 consecutive days, although one renewal is often permitted. Absence because of illness is often specifically excepted from the time limitations. Applications for extended leave are sometimes required to be in writing. Generally, the applications for leave are subject to approval by the company, although some agreements either specifically or impliedly make granting of the leave mandatory, provided the number applying for leave at any one time is limited.

A number of agreements require the company or association to provide a book in which the employees may register their desire for particular days off. Many of these agreements specify that, in applying the limitation as to the number to be granted leave on any one day, priority in registering shall govern. Union officials are generally granted priority in leave when time off is necessary for official business. Generally, a request for leave must be made before the list of assignments for the day, on which leave is desired, is made up. Usually, however, leave may not be requested more than 1 week in advance.

### *Vacations and Holidays*

*Vacations with pay.*—About 75 percent of the agreements provide for annual vacations with pay. In 93 of the cases the time specified is 1 week—69 of these after 1 year's service, 8 after one-half year, 8 after 2 years, 1 after 3 years, and 7 with no length of service mentioned. Ten of the agreements provide for 2 weeks' and 5 others specify 10 days' vacation after 1 year's service. About 15 percent of the agreements provide for additional vacations above the minimum in recognition of longer periods of service. The most common are 2 weeks after either 2 or 5 years, both of these types providing 1 week after 1 year's service.

Quite often, to be eligible for a vacation, an operator must work a minimum number of hours during the year, usually about three-fourths of full time.

The agreements generally specify that vacations may not be accumulated but must be taken as earned, and that cash payments

in lieu of actual time off shall not be permitted. Employees who are discharged or voluntarily quit the service of the company during the year generally forfeit all vacation rights. Quite often seniority is the governing factor in the selection of vacation periods.

*Holidays.*—Four of the agreements specify that employees shall be paid when not working on holidays. These four, plus several others, also provide that the overtime rate shall be paid to those employees working on holidays.

Generally, holidays are not mentioned in the agreements, since streetcar and bus service is maintained on such days even though on a restricted basis. In a few cases a restriction is placed upon applications for time off on such days, the restriction being that requests may not be made long in advance. Some agreements specifically state that operators whose regular day off coincides with the holiday shall be assured their time off before any other requests are granted. A small number provide further that an operator having preference, through priority of application, for Thanksgiving leave may not also have preference for Christmas leave.

### *Seniority*

Seniority provisions are one of the most important sections in most streetcar and bus operators' agreements. In the larger cities where the companies have various barns, divisions, and departments, seniority is generally applied on the basis of several lists, each designed for particular situations. Separate lists are frequently required to be maintained on a company-wide basis for each department. These lists are then divided by occupation, division, barn, or shop. Agreements with the smaller companies generally provide for separate shop and operating lists, and frequently divide the operating list with respect to motormen, conductors, and bus drivers.

*Acquisition and loss of seniority.*—Seniority almost invariably runs from the date of last employment. Resignation or discharge automatically cancels seniority rights. Many agreements, however, state that seniority shall be retained through a lay-off occasioned by lack of work. Seniority is always retained during an approved leave of absence and generally throughout an absence on account of illness.

About one-fourth of the agreements include a military-service provision whereby an employee retains his position and seniority during his term in the armed forces. In most of these cases the seniority is definitely specified as being cumulative.

Permanent promotion to a supervisory position generally involves loss of seniority rights in all lower classifications. Some agreements, however, provide for retention of these rights through a trial period, during which time the employee may return to his old classification in full standing.

*Lay-off.*—About half of the agreements provide that during slack seasons there shall be lay-offs in accordance with seniority and subsequent rehiring in inverse order, provided the laid-off men make themselves available within a specified number of days. A number of agreements state that no new employees shall be taken on before those laid off have been given an opportunity to return.

*Promotions and transfers.*—About half the agreements provide for the application of seniority in respect to promotion and transfers. The promotion provisions usually require that the senior man be considered or given a trial when a vacancy occurs, but do not require that he be given the job unless fully qualified. This application of seniority is frequently on a departmental basis, although in some cases it is confined to a shop or barn.

A number of agreements provide for an annual "system pick," at which time each employee may choose, according to his departmental seniority, the barn or shop and classification in which he wishes to work. When this method is used, voluntary transfers between barns or shops are generally prohibited at other times.

Some agreements provide that shop or office men may not operate cars or busses in regular service, and some specify that all positions as starters, loaders, platform men, or flagmen shall belong to the "blue uniform men."

Employees transferring from one classification to another, as from street-car operation to bus driving, go to the foot of the list for their new classification, but frequently retain their rights in their former classification, temporarily with respect to a voluntary return, or permanently in respect to reductions in service.

*Shift and run assignments.*—Seniority is the basis for determining work assignments in practically all street-railway agreements. At various times during the year, usually every 3 or 4 months, all regular runs or pieces of work are listed for selection. The employee with the greatest seniority will have first choice and so on until all regular runs have been assigned. Frequently it is required that additional picks or selection of runs be held whenever changes in schedules are contemplated, or whenever permanent vacancies occur on any runs. Some agreements provide that should an employee select an assignment which the company does not consider him competent to fill, he shall be denied the assignment provided the union concurs in the decision, often after a week's trial. Several agreements provide for union-management cooperation in making out the list of runs and timetables for them.

The list of runs is usually required to be posted at the various car barns or garages several days before the selection is made. The operators are then given a definite time limit in which they are to state their choice. In the event an operator fails to make his choice or is unavailable when his turn to choose arrives, provision is usually

made for the superintendent, or the superintendent and a union official together, to choose for him. In some cases an employee having seniority may choose to go on the extra list rather than take one of the regular runs.

After the list of regular runs has been exhausted, the remainder of the operators are put on an extra list for work assignments other than regular runs. This extra list is also prepared according to seniority. Generally the list rotates upon any assignment. However, a number of agreements specifically provide that an operator shall retain his position at the head of the list until he has been assigned a specified number of hours' work, usually the equivalent of a normal regular run. A number of agreements provide that the man in order may not refuse any assignment offered, but others state that this is permissible. A few agreements contain share-the-work provisions for men on the extra list, but in several cases it is specifically prohibited.

In cases of vacancies on the regular list, the run is usually handled by the extra men in rotation for the first few days, after which it is definitely assigned to the oldest man in seniority on the extra list until a 30-day period has elapsed, after which either a reselection of all runs is held or it is bid in by those regular operators below the one leaving the vacancy. In either case the man having the greatest seniority on the extra list moves into the regular classification.

### *Health, Safety, and Welfare*

*Physical examinations.*—About 1 in 10 of the agreements require the employees to submit to physical examinations either yearly or upon request of the company. Generally, it is provided that the examiner must be selected by the company and the union or that the employee may appeal the findings of the company examiner to his own physician. The minimum physical requirements are not stated in the agreements.

*Condition of equipment.*—About 20 percent of the agreements require that each car or bus be checked and placed in good condition by the shopmen before being delivered to the operator. Items most frequently mentioned to be checked are brakes, window wipers, and doors.

*Welfare.*—The operators' use of seats or stools while on the car is usually governed by company regulations and not made part of the agreements. About 10 percent of the agreements, however, specifically require that seats be provided for motormen and conductors. A small number include a statement of the rules regarding their use, commonly specifying that they may not be used when the car is in heavy traffic areas, or that conductors may not be seated when passengers are standing. A few agreements also require that the operators' cabs must be equipped with heaters.

A frequent provision is that operators may remove their coats during hot weather, provided they wear approved shirts and no suspenders. Comfort stations are often required at turning points, and a few agreements require the company to provide washrooms and lockers at each barn.

### *Discipline*

A great number of the agreements contain definite rules for the handling of discipline. It is usually agreed that employees shall be informed of any alleged misconduct or violation as soon as possible, generally within 3 days, after occurrence. After an employee has been informed of the charges, usually in writing, he is given sufficient time to obtain witnesses or otherwise prepare his case. He is then given a formal hearing and in most cases he may be represented by the union. Many agreements provide for appeal by arbitration.

Practically all of the agreements provide that if an employee is suspended or discharged for alleged violation of company rules and if, after investigation by the company and the union, he is found not guilty of the charge, he shall be reinstated and paid for all time lost.

Specific causes for discharge are not frequently mentioned in the agreements. Those most often specified are repeated "misses" (tardiness) within 30 days, unreported absence from duty, intoxication, and irregularities in handling fares. A number of agreements provide that unreported absence shall be cause for dismissal, but that the employee's record shall be marked "resigned."

In many cases a definite method of recording disciplinary action is provided. It is frequently specified that the record must contain the employee's reply to the charges. If only the company maintains these records, they are often available for inspection by accredited union officials. Several agreements provide for a duplicate set of records, one to be furnished to the union.

Several agreements, in open as well as closed shops, provide that the company will dismiss or suspend a member of the union, if the union requests such action, because the member has violated the union's rules or laws. Usually such action is taken by the company only after its own investigation. A few agreements specify that an employee may be dismissed through joint action of the union and company for "interfering with or disturbing the course of negotiations between the union and company or for interfering with or disturbing the service or goodwill between the company, employees, and public."

Operators, both regular and extra, are generally penalized for reporting late by being required to serve specified periods at the foot of the extra list. While serving a penalty at the foot of the list an operator receives pay only for extra assignments that may be given him. The time required to be served at the foot of the list is usually 1 day.

for the first late report or "miss" within 30 days. Subsequent misses within 30 days carry increasingly greater penalties. Usually a fourth miss within 30 days is specified as cause for discharge or other severe disciplinary action.

### *Adjustment of Disputes*

*Grievances.*—In addition to the prevalent provision that the company will meet and treat with the union representatives for the settlement of any differences that may arise between them, many agreements contain more specific provisions for the procedure in these cases. About a fourth of the agreements specifically require employees to present individual grievances to the heads of their departments before the matters may become subjects for union-management discussion. A number of agreements name the company officials with whom successive conferences are to be held. Most frequently these provide that the union may carry its case to the highest company official if a satisfactory settlement is not obtained in any previous conference. Many cases require each company official to render his decision within a specified time after the matter in dispute has been brought to his attention. One or two agreements provide definite conference committees of both sides to be used in settling disputes.

*Arbitration.*—Practically all of the agreements provide for arbitration in the case of differences, pertaining to the application of the terms of the agreement, that cannot be mutually adjusted. A number of agreements specifically state that arbitration is to be a last resort and that both parties shall make every effort possible to reach an understanding through direct negotiations. One or two agreements state that permission to arbitrate must be obtained from the international office of the union.

About one-fourth of the agreements provide for arbitration of the terms of succeeding agreements. A few agreements limit arbitration so as to exclude matters fixed and determined by the agreement, improper handling of fares or transfers, or questions of union representation or recognition.

All of the agreements providing for arbitration specify the appointment of temporary arbitrators as the occasions may arise, except in a few cases where State arbitration or conciliation boards are mentioned. Nearly all of the agreements providing arbitration state that the board shall be composed of two members, one chosen by each side, with an impartial chairman appointed by the other two. Under about one-fourth of the agreements the first two appointees attempt to reach a settlement before selecting the third member. A very few agreements specify larger boards. If the original appointees are unable to agree upon an impartial chairman within a specified time, it is fre-

quently required that the union and company confer in regard to naming new appointees or concerning a method of selecting an impartial member. A small number of agreements designate a particular judge or other public official who shall name such impartial chairman. In one case the judge selected appoints the entire board. In about 10 percent of the agreements, all members are required to be disinterested persons, in that none may be either presently or formerly connected with either party as members, employees, or stockholders. Usually it is provided that if either side fails to name the board member within a specified time, the party so failing shall forfeit its case.

Requests for arbitration may come from either party and are usually required to be in writing. The decision of a majority of the board is always considered final.

*Strikes and lock-outs.*—About 40 percent of the agreements contain specific restrictions upon strikes and lock-outs. Most of these flatly prohibit any strike or lock-out for the duration of the agreement. In addition about 15 percent prohibit such action pending arbitration and almost one-fourth of all the agreements place a ban on sympathetic strikes.

In addition to the restrictions upon strikes incorporated in the agreements, each local union is bound by the restrictions contained in the constitution of its association. The constitution of the Amalgamated Association provides that a strike vote may be taken only after negotiations for the settlement of the dispute have been tried and have failed. Strike votes must be by secret ballot and every member must be given a ballot. Two-thirds of the votes cast are required for an affirmative decision. Following an affirmative vote, the international president must be notified to send a representative, who shall investigate and attempt to secure a settlement through negotiation or arbitration. In case of failure in these negotiations the international representative is then required to secure approval from a majority of the general executive board before authorizing a strike. A local division entering upon an unauthorized strike forfeits all rights to assistance and renders itself subject to expulsion from the Association.

### *Duration of the Agreements*

About 60 percent of the agreements are written for a term of 1 year, with provision for continuance from year to year, provided neither party notifies the other of a desired change to be effective at the annual renewal date. Most of the other agreements are written for 2-year terms, although a small number run for 3 years. Several others cover periods of 13 to 18 months and one or two extend 4 or 5 years.

It is generally specified that notice of any desired change, which will result in reopening the agreement, must be given 30 days in advance of the renewal date. A 60-day minimum is provided in a number of others, and periods of 15 or 45 days appear in a few. Those agreements extending more than 1 year sometimes provide for the reopening of negotiations at the anniversary date for the purpose of discussing wages only. One or two specified that wage discussions could be automatically opened when the cost of living had advanced by a fixed percentage.

### *Rates in Each City*

The union rates per hour in force on June 1, 1941, and June 1, 1940, by city, are shown in the following table. Hours are not given, since the hours of work are irregular, depending on the "run." Any changes in scales since June 1, 1941, which have come to the attention of the Bureau of Labor Statistics appear in the footnotes.

TABLE

City

2-man car

First

Second

Third

1-man car

coaches

First

Second

Third

Buses:

First

4-12

After

B

2-man car

First

Second

Third

1-man car

First

Second

Third

Guaranteed

2-man car

First

4-12

The

1-man car

First

4-12

The

Rapid t

Mot

Guar

Busses

Busses:

First

4-12

The

2-man car

First

4-12

After

Night

1-man car

Night

Busses

Un

Ov

1 Inc

2 Inc

TABLE 4.—Union Rates of Wages of Street-Railway Employees, June 1, 1941, and June 1, 1940, by Cities

City and classification	Rates of wages per hour		City and classification	Rates of wages per hour	
	June 1, 1941	June 1, 1940		June 1, 1941	June 1, 1940
<i>Atlanta, Ga.</i>					
2-man cars and feeder busses:			<i>Chicago, Ill.—Continued</i>		
First 9 months	\$0.600	\$0.565	Elevated railway:		
Second 9 months	.650	.615	Motormen:		
Thereafter	.680	.645	First 3 months	\$0.807	\$0.757
1-man cars, busses, and trolley coaches:			4-12 months	.816	.766
First 9 months	.670	.635	After 1 year	.861	.811
Second 9 months	.720	.685	Conductors:		
Thereafter	.750	.715	First year	.798	.748
<i>Binghamton, N. Y.</i>			After 1 year	.816	.766
Busses:			Guards, regular	.798	.748
First 3 months	.610	.570	Guards, extra:		
4-12 months	.660	.620	First 3 months	.770	.720
After 1 year	.690	.650	4-12 months	.780	.730
<i>Birmingham, Ala.</i>			After 1 year	.789	.739
2-man cars:			<i>Cincinnati, Ohio</i>		
First year	.600	.600	2-man cars:		
Second year	.620	.620	First 3 months	1.640	.620
Third year	.650	.650	4-12 months	1.670	.650
1-man cars and busses:			After 1 year	1.600	.670
First year	.675	.675	1-man cars and busses:		
Second year	.695	.695	* First 3 months	1.710	.690
Third year	.725	.725	4-12 months	1.740	.720
<i>Boston, Mass.</i>			After 1 year	1.760	.740
2-man cars:			<i>Cleveland, Ohio</i>		
First 3 months	.580	.580	2-man cars:		
4-12 months	.640	.640	First 3 months	1.720	.670
Thereafter	.780	.780	4-12 months	1.750	.700
1-man cars and busses:			After 1 year	1.770	.720
First 3 months	.680	.680	1-man cars and busses:		
4-12 months	.740	.740	First 3 months	1.790	.740
Thereafter	.880	.880	4-12 months	1.820	.770
Rapid transit lines:			After 1 year	1.840	.790
Motormen	.830	.830	<i>Columbus, Ohio</i>		
Guards:			1-man cars and class A busses:		
First 3 months	.580	.580	First 3 months	.660	.600
4-12 months	.640	.640	4-12 months	.690	.630
Thereafter	.780	.780	After 1 year	.710	.650
Busses	.800	.800	Class B busses:		
<i>Charleston, S. C.</i>			First 3 months	.500	.560
Busses:			4-12 months	.620	.590
First 3 months	.585	.560	After 1 year	.640	.610
4-12 months	.605	.580	<i>Davenport, Iowa</i>		
Thereafter	.625	.600	(See Rock Island (Ill.) district.)		
<i>Chicago, Ill.</i>			<i>Dayton, Ohio</i>		
2-man cars:			1-man cars and busses:		
First 3 months	.800	.750	Company A:		
4-12 months	.830	.780	First 3 months	.670	.610
After 1 year	.850	.800	4-12 months	.690	.630
Night cars	.870	.820	After 1 year	.710	.680
1-man cars	.930	.880	Company B:		
Night cars	.950	.900	First 6 months	.600	
Busses:			7-12 months	.650	
Under 40 passengers:			After 1 year	.700	
Day	.850	.800	<i>Denver, Colo.</i>		
Night	.870		2-man cars:		
Over 40 passengers:			First 3 months	.610	.590
Day	.930	.880	4-12 months	.620	.600
Night	.950	.900	13-18 months	.630	.610
		19-24 months	.640	.620	
		After 2 years	.650	.630	

<sup>1</sup> Increase of 5 cents per hour July 1, 1941.<sup>2</sup> Increase of 1 cent per hour September 1, 1941.

TABLE 4.—Union Rates of Wages of Street-Railway Employees, June 1, 1941, and June 1, 1940, by Cities—Continued

City and classification	Rates of wages per hour		City and classification	Rates of wages per hour	
	June 1, 1941	June 1, 1940		June 1, 1941	June 1, 1940
<i>Denver, Colo.—Continued</i>					
1-man cars and busses:			1-man cars and busses:		
First 3 months	\$0.600	\$0.640	First 3 months	\$0.460	
4-12 months	.670	.650	4-6 months	.480	
13-18 months	.680	.600	7-12 months	.510	
19-24 months	.690	.670	Second year	.540	
After 2 years	.700	.680	Third year	.570	
<i>Des Moines, Iowa</i>					
1-man cars, trolley busses, and motor coaches:			1-man cars and busses:		
First 3 months	.635	.625	First 6 months	.460	\$0.420
4-12 months	.665	.655	7-12 months	.480	.450
After 1 year	.710	.700	Second year	.510	.480
<i>Detroit, Mich.</i>					
2-man cars:			1-man cars (interurban):		
First 6 months	.790	.750	First 3 months	.635	.635
Second 6 months	.830	.790	4-12 months	.645	.645
After 1 year	.870	.830	Second year	.660	.660
Owl shift	.970	.930	After 2 years	.680	.680
1-man cars and busses:			2-man cars (local):		
First 6 months	.840	.780	First 3 months	.655	.655
Second 6 months	.880	.820	4-12 months	.665	.665
After 1 year	.920	.860	Second year	.680	.680
Owl shift	1.020	.960	After 2 years	.700	.700
<i>Duluth, Minn.</i>					
Busses:			Single-track cars:		
First year	.500	.500	First 3 months	.705	.705
Second year	.610	.590	4-12 months	.715	.715
After 2 years	.630	.610	Second year	.730	.730
<i>Erie, Pa.</i>			After 2 years	.750	.750
Busses:			1-man cars and motor coaches:		
First 6 months	\$.650	.600	First 3 months	.705	.705
7-12 months	.720	.660	4-12 months	.715	.715
After 1 year	.750	.690	Second year	.730	.730
<i>Grand Rapids, Mich.</i>			After 2 years	.750	.750
Busses	.640	.590	Motor Transit Co.:		
<i>Indianapolis, Ind.</i>			Busses:		
1-man cars and Company A busses:			First 3 months	.705	.705
First year	.670	.650	4-12 months	.715	.715
Second year	.690	.670	Second year	.730	.730
After 2 years	.740	.720	After 2 years	.750	.750
Company B busses	.470		Los Angeles Railway Co.:		
<i>Jackson, Miss.</i>			2-man cars:		
Busses:			First year	.660	.560
First 6 months	.570	.530	Second year	.720	.620
After 6 months	.620	.580	Third year	.750	.650
<i>Jacksonville, Fla.</i>			1-man cars:		
Busses:			First year	.760	
First 6 months	.550	.490	Second year	.820	
Second 6 months	.560	.500	Third year	.850	
Second year	.570	.510	Busses:		
Third year	.580	.520	First year	.760	.630
Fourth year	.590	.530	Second year	.820	.690
After 4 years	.600	.540	Third year	.850	.720

\* Plus a bonus of 3¢ cent for each hour worked.

TABLE 4.—Union Rates of Wages of Street-Railway Employees, June 1, 1941, and June 1, 1940, by Cities—Continued

City and classification	Rates of wages per hour		City and classification	Rates of wages per hour				
	June 1, 1941	June 1, 1940		June 1, 1941	June 1, 1940			
<i>Manchester, N. H.</i>								
Busses:			New Haven, Conn.					
First 3 months.....	\$0.600	\$0.550	1-man cars and busses:					
4-12 months.....	.660	.610	First 3 months.....	\$0.720	\$0.640			
After 1 year.....	.730	.670	4-12 months.....	.750	.670			
<i>Memphis, Tenn.</i>								
1-man cars and busses:			After 1 year.....	.790	.710			
First year.....	.615	.605	<i>New Orleans, La.</i>					
Second year.....	.665	.655	Busses (Algiers Division):					
After 2 years.....	.715	.705	First 6 months.....	.480	.450			
<i>Milwaukee, Wis.</i>			7-12 months.....	.490	.460			
2-man cars:			13-18 months.....	.500	.470			
First year.....	.670	.670	19-24 months.....	.510	.480			
Second year.....	.690	.690	25-30 months.....	.520	.490			
Third year.....	.710	.710	After 30 months.....	.530	.500			
After 3 years.....	.730	.730	<i>New York, N. Y.</i>					
1-man cars and busses:			Subways:					
First year.....	.720	.720	B. M. T. System:					
Second year.....	.740	.740	Operators:					
Third year.....	.760	.760	First year.....	.792	.792			
After 3 years.....	.780	.780	Second year.....	.869	.869			
<i>Minneapolis, Minn. (includes St. Paul, Minn.)</i>			After 2 years.....	.957	.957			
2-man cars:			Conductors:					
First year.....	.500	.500	First 2 years.....	.638	.638			
Second year.....	.620	.620	After 2 years.....	.660	.660			
Third year.....	.650	.650	Trainmen:					
1-man cars and busses:			First 2 years.....	.521	.521			
First year.....	.680	.680	Second 2 years.....	.528	.528			
Second year.....	.710	.710	Fifth year.....	.561	.561			
Third year.....	.750	.750	After 5 years.....	.616	.616			
<i>Mobile, Ala.</i>			I. R. T. System:					
Busses:			Motormen:					
First 6 months.....	.530	.500	First year.....	.858	.858			
After 6 months.....	.580	.550	After 1 year.....	.960	.953			
<i>Moline, Ill.</i>			Conductors:					
(See Rock Island (Ill.) district.)			First 2 years.....	.648	.648			
<i>Nashville, Tenn.</i>			After 2 years.....	.700	.700			
Busses:			Conductors (multiple-unit-door control):					
First 3 months.....	.540	.540	First 2 years.....	.668	.668			
4-12 months.....	.580	.580	After 2 years.....	.700	.700			
13-18 months.....	.600	.600	Trainmen:					
19-24 months.....	.630	.630	First year.....	.574	.574			
After 2 years.....	.660	.660	Second year.....	.583	.583			
<i>Newark, N. J.</i>			After 2 years.....	.633	.633			
1-man cars and busses:			Trainmen (multiple-unit-door control):					
First 3 months.....	.660	.660	First year.....	.594	.594			
4-12 months.....	.680	.680	Second year.....	.605	.605			
After 1 year.....	.700	.700	After 2 years.....	.655	.655			
Ironbound Transportation Co.: Busses:			Surface cars:					
Class A.....	.600	.600	Third Avenue Railway System:					
Class B.....	.560	.560	First 3 months.....	.460	.460			
Class C.....	.530	.530	4-6 months.....	.480	.480			
Class D.....	.510	.510	7-9 months.....	.500	.500			
Class E.....	.480	.480	10-12 months.....	.530	.520			
*55 cents per hour Dec. 1, 1941.			13-15 months.....	.550	.550			
*60 cents per hour Dec. 1, 1941.			16-18 months.....	.570	.570			
			19-21 months.....	.590	.590			
			22-24 months.....	.610	.610			
			Third year.....	.700	.700			
			Fourth year.....	.710	.710			
			Fifth year.....	.720	.720			
			After 5 years.....	.760	.760			
			Special beginners.....	.600	.600			

\*55 cents per hour Dec. 1, 1941.

\*60 cents per hour Dec. 1, 1941.

TABLE 4.—Union Rates of Wages of Street-Railway Employees, June 1, 1941, and June 1, 1940, by Cities—Continued

City and classification	Rates of wages per hour		City and classification	Rates of wages per hour		
	June 1, 1941	June 1, 1940		June 1, 1941	June 1, 1940	
<i>New York, N. Y.—Continued</i>						
<i>Surface cars—Continued.</i>						
Brooklyn-Queens Transit Lines:			New York, N. Y.—Continued			
First year	\$0.521	\$0.521	Busses—Continued.			
13-18 months	.528	.528	Avenue B and East Broadway Transit Co.:			
19-24 months	.550	.550	First 6 months	\$0.500	\$0.500	
25-30 months	.572	.572	7-12 months	.560	.560	
31-36 months	.594	.594	Second year	.620	.620	
37-42 months	.616	.616	Third year	.640	.640	
43-48 months	.638	.638	Fourth year	.660	.660	
Fifth year	.660	.660	After 4 years	.740	.740	
After 5 years	.770	.770	Queens - Nassau Transit Lines:			
Queensboro Bridge Railway	.680	.680	First year	.638	.580	
Busses:			Second year	.680	.620	
Fifth Avenue Coach Co.:			Third year	.760	.660	
Drivers:			Fourth year	.810	.710	
First year	.770	.690	After 4 years	.850	.740	
Second year	.780	.760	Steinway Omnibus Co.:			
Third year	.810	.790	First 3 months	.460	.460	
Fourth year	.820	.800	4-6 months	.480	.480	
After 4 years	.830	.810	7-9 months	.500	.500	
Conductors:			10-12 months	.510	.510	
First year	.700	.620	13-15 months	.520	.520	
Second year	.710	.690	16-18 months	.540	.540	
Third year	.740	.720	19-21 months	.560	.560	
Fourth year	.750	.730	22-24 months	.580	.580	
After 4 years	.760	.740	Third year	.590	.590	
New York City Omnibus Co.:			Fourth year	.620	.620	
First 6 months	.650	.610	Fifth year	.630	.630	
7-12 months	.740	.700	After 5 years	.770	.700	
Second year	.800	.760	Staten Island Coach Co.:			
Third year	.860	.820	First 3 months	.680	.615	
Fourth year	.880	.840	4-6 months	.705	.640	
After 4 years	.940	.900	7-9 months	.730	.665	
Comprehensive and East Side Cos.:			10-12 months	.755	.690	
First 3 months	.600	.560	13-18 months	.780	.715	
4-12 months	.673	.633	19-24 months	.815	.750	
Second year	.720	.680	After 2 years	.850	.785	
Third year	.755	.715	North Shore Bus Co.:			
Fourth year	.790	.750	First year	.670	.605	
After 4 years	.880	.820	Second year	.770	.627	
Third Avenue Railway System:			Third year	.870	.660	
First 3 months	.460	.460	Fourth year	.870	.693	
4-6 months	.480	.480	After 4 years	.870	.770	
7-9 months	.500	.500	Manhattan and Queens Line:			
10-12 months	.530	.530	First 6 months	.610	.610	
13-15 months	.550	.550	7-12 months	.640	.640	
16-18 months	.570	.570	Second year	.665	.665	
19-21 months	.590	.590	Third year	.690	.690	
22-24 months	.610	.610	After 3 years	.770	.770	
Third year	.700	.700	Jamaica Busses, Inc.:			
Fourth year	.730	.730	First year	.610	.550	
Fifth year	.750	.750	Second year	.640	.580	
After 5 years	.780	.780	Third year	.670	.610	
Special beginners	.600	.600	Fourth year	.720	.650	
Brooklyn Bus Corporation:			After 4 years	.770	.700	
First year	.521	.521	Green Lines:			
13-18 months	.528	.528	First year	.605	.605	
19-24 months	.550	.550	Second year	.630	.630	
25-30 months	.572	.572	Third year	.660	.660	
31-36 months	.594	.594	After 3 years	.790	.770	
37-42 months	.616	.616	Schenck Transportation Co.:			
43-48 months	.638	.638	First year	.650	.650	
Fifth year	.660	.660	Second year	.680	.680	
After 5 years	.770	.770	After 2 years	.725	.725	

\* 85 cents per hour Dec. 31, 1941.

† 2½-cent increase Aug. 1, 1941.

‡ 1-6 months, 65 cents per hour; 7-12 months, 70 cents per hour; 13-24 months, 72 cents per hour; after 2 years, 77 cents per hour; June 12, 1941.

TABLE 4.—Union Rates of Wages of Street-Railway Employees, June 1, 1941, and June 1, 1940, by Cities—Continued

City and classification	Rates of wages per hour		City and classification	Rates of wages per hour	
	June 1, 1941	June 1, 1940		June 1, 1941	June 1, 1940
<i>Oklahoma City, Okla.</i>					
1-man cars and busses:			Portland, Oreg.		
First 6 months	\$0.570	\$0.620	1-man cars and busses:		
7-12 months	.590	.640	First 3 months	\$0.800	\$0.780
Second year	.620	.670	4-12 months	.830	.810
After 2 years	.650	.700	After 1 year	.850	.830
Interurban	.670	.750	Interurban	.720	.720
<i>Peoria, Ill.</i>					
1-man cars, trackless trolleys, and busses:			Providence, R. I.		
First year	.660	.660	1-man cars and busses:		
Second year	.680	.680	First 3 months	.725	.725
After 2 years	.700	.700	4-12 months	.755	.755
<i>Philadelphia, Pa.</i>					
Subway, elevated, and high-speed lines:			After 1 year	.775	.775
Motormen:			<i>Rochester, N. Y.</i>		
First 6 months	.730	.680	2-man subway cars	.750	.690
7-12 months	.755	.705	Busses:		
13-18 months	.780	.730	First 3 months	.740	.680
19-24 months	.805	.775	4-12 months	.760	.700
After 2 years	.830	.780	After 1 year	.780	.720
Conductors:			<i>Rock Island (Ill.) District</i>		
First 6 months	.650	.650	Busses:		
7-12 months	.675	.675	First 6 months	.660	.625
13-18 months	.700	.700	7-12 months	.680	.645
19-24 months	.725	.725	After 1 year	.700	.665
After 2 years	.750	.750	<i>St. Louis, Mo.</i>		
2-man cars:			2-man cars:		
First 6 months	.650	.650	First 6 months	.560	.540
7-12 months	.675	.675	7-12 months	.620	.600
13-18 months	.700	.700	13-18 months	.680	.660
19-24 months	.725	.725	After 18 months	.730	.710
After 2 years	.750	.750	1-man cars and busses:		
1-man cars:			First 6 months	.630	.610
First 6 months	.730	.700	7-12 months	.690	.670
7-12 months	.755	.725	13-18 months	.750	.730
13-18 months	.780	.750	After 18 months	.800	.780
19-24 months	.805	.775	Service cars:		
After 2 years	.830	.800	First 3 years	.525	.525
Busses:			After 3 years	.550	.550
First 6 months	.730	.730	<i>St. Paul, Minn.</i>		
7-12 months	.755	.755	(See Minneapolis, Minn.)		
13-18 months	.780	.780	<i>Salt Lake City, Utah</i>		
19-24 months	.805	.805	Busses:		
After 2 years	.830	.830	First year	.580	.530
<i>Phoenix, Ariz.</i>			After 1 year	.660	.610
1-man cars and busses	.750	.750	<i>San Antonio, Tex.</i>		
<i>Pittsburgh, Pa.</i>			Busses	10.745	.745
1-man cars:			<i>San Francisco, Calif.</i>		
First 3 months	.810	.810	2-man cars:		
4-12 months	.900	.900	First 6 months	11.625	.600
After 1 year	.955	.955	7-12 months	11.650	.625
Busses:			13-18 months	11.675	.650
First 3 months	.690	.630	19-30 months	11.700	.675
4-12 months	.800	.740	After 30 months	11.725	.700
Second year	.830	.770	Cable cars:		
After 2 years	.840	.780	Gripmen and conductors	.725	.725
<i>Portland, Maine</i>					
Busses	.700	.650			

<sup>a</sup> Increase of 1 cent per hour October 26, 1941.<sup>b</sup> Increase of 2 cents per hour July 1, 1941.<sup>c</sup> Increase of 2½ cents per hour July 1, 1941.

TABLE 4.—Union Rates of Wages of Street-Railway Employees, June 1, 1941, and June 1, 1940, by Cities—Continued

City and classification	Rates of wages per hour		City and classification	Rates of wages per hour	
	June 1, 1941	June 1, 1940		June 1, 1941	June 1, 1940
<i>San Francisco, Calif.—Con.</i>					
<b>Busses:</b>					
First 6 months	<sup>11</sup> \$0.725	\$0.700	1-man cars and busses:		
7-12 months	<sup>11</sup> .750	.725	First 6 months	\$0.740	\$0.670
13-18 months	<sup>11</sup> .775	.750	7-12 months	.760	.690
19-30 months	<sup>11</sup> .800	.775	After 1 year	.790	.720
After 30 months	<sup>11</sup> .825	.800			
<i>Scranton, Pa.</i>					
<b>1-man cars and busses:</b>			<b>2-man cars:</b>		
First 3 months	.640	.630	First 3 months	<sup>12</sup> .660	.630
4-12 months	.690	.680	4-12 months	<sup>12</sup> .700	.670
After 1 year	.720	.710	After 1 year	<sup>14</sup> .720	.690
<i>South Bend, Ind.</i>			<b>1-man cars and busses:</b>		
<b>Busses:</b>			First 3 months	<sup>12</sup> .730	.700
First year	.650	.650	4-12 months	<sup>12</sup> .770	.740
Second year	.675	.650	After 1 year	<sup>17</sup> .700	.760
After 2 years	.700	.650			
<i>Spokane, Wash.</i>					
<b>Busses:</b>			<i>Worcester, Mass.</i>		
First year	.600		<b>1-man cars and busses:</b>		
Second and third years	.640		First 3 months	.710	.660
After 3 years	.680		4-12 months	.760	.710
			After 1 year	.810	.760
<i>Springfield, Mass.</i>					
<b>1-man cars and busses:</b>			<i>Youngstown, Ohio</i>		
First 3 months	.720	.640	<b>Busses:</b>		
4-12 months	.770	.690	First 3 months	.700	.650
After 1 year	.810	.730	4-12 months	.750	.700
			After 1 year	.800	.750

<sup>11</sup> Increase of 2½ cents per hour July 1, 1941.<sup>12</sup> 68 cents per hour July 1, 1941.<sup>13</sup> 72 cents per hour July 1, 1941.<sup>14</sup> 76 cents per hour July 1, 1941.<sup>15</sup> 77 cents per hour July 1, 1941.<sup>16</sup> 81 cents per hour July 1, 1941.<sup>17</sup> 85 cents per hour July 1, 1941.

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## WAGES AND HOURS OF UNION MOTORTRUCK DRIVERS AND HELPERS, JUNE 1, 1941<sup>1</sup>

THE average hourly wage rate of union motortruck drivers in 75 cities was 82.9 cents on June 1, 1941. Union helpers averaged 68.6 cents and the average for the combined truck driver and helper occupations was 80.8 cents. Based on comparable quotations for both June 1, 1940, and June 1, 1941, the general level of hourly rates advanced 3.8 percent for drivers, 5.0 percent for helpers, and 4.0 percent for the combined groups. Actual rates for drivers ranged from 30 cents for special-delivery milk drivers in Norfolk to \$2.00 per hour for operators of dump trucks of over 8 cubic feet capacity in St. Louis. Helpers had a range in rates between 27.8 cents for some of the helpers on furniture trucks in Birmingham to \$1.125 for helpers on theatrical-equipment trucks in New York City.

The above averages cover city trucking primarily, although over-the-road drivers were also included when they were paid on an hourly, rather than a mileage, basis. The survey included 2,587 wage quotations covering 241,608 union members. The term "truck drivers" covers a heterogeneous group of occupations, such as drivers of building and excavating trucks, coal trucks, ice trucks, general hauling and transfer trucks, delivery trucks hauling various and miscellaneous commodities, and express and freight trucks. In each of the many classifications of hauling, different types and sizes of trucks are likely to be used. Each truck-driving occupation and each size and type of truck usually has a different wage rate. Furthermore, there is great variation among the different cities, not only in respect to the commodities handled under union agreements, but also in respect to the types of trucks and the terminology used to describe the different occupations. For these reasons it is impossible to make an intercity classification by types. The data on all truck driving in all cities studied, therefore, are treated as for one trade in this study, division being made only between drivers and helpers.

Wage payments for drivers doing local hauling, or making local deliveries which do not involve sales functions, are almost universally established on a time basis. Most frequently the agreements specify hourly rates, although daily or weekly wage scales are not uncommon. In order to achieve comparability, these daily and weekly wage scales have been converted to an hourly basis whenever the agreements specified the number of hours for which the scales applied. Some trucking agreements, although specifying wage scales on an hourly, daily, or weekly basis, do not specify the number of hours that shall

<sup>1</sup> Prepared by Kermit B. Mohn, under the direction of Florence Peterson, chief of the Bureau's Industrial Relations Division.

constitute full time. Quotations of this type consequently have been omitted in the computation of average full-time hours and in the table showing the distribution according to hours per week. When the wage rates were given on an hourly basis these quotations have been included in all rate computations, but when the specified wage scale could not be converted to an hourly basis they have been excluded.

Agreements covering route drivers, particularly those handling bakery products, beer, laundry, and milk, commonly classify the drivers as salesmen. Ordinarily, the compensation of these drivers is specified as a weekly guaranty plus various commissions based upon the volume of deliveries or collections. Similarly, the agreements covering road drivers commonly specify either trip or mileage rates rather than hourly wage scales. All quotations specifying such commission, trip, or mileage wage scales, which could not be converted to an hourly basis, have been excluded from the computations upon which this report is based.

### *Distribution of Members According to Hourly Wage Rates*

Over 43 percent of the union truck drivers had hourly rates between 75 and 90 cents; 61 percent had rates in the wider range of 70 to 95 cents. Those drivers receiving \$1.00 or more per hour included 18.6 percent of the total, while only 15.9 percent had rates that were less than 70 cents per hour.

A substantial majority (57.3 percent) of the helpers had hourly rates of 60 cents but less than 80 cents. Only 2.6 percent were receiving as much as \$1.00 per hour, with none higher than \$1.125; more than half (54.3 percent) had rates less than 70 cents per hour.

TABLE 1.—*Percentage Distribution of Union Motortruck Drivers and Helpers, by Hourly Wage Rates, June 1, 1941*

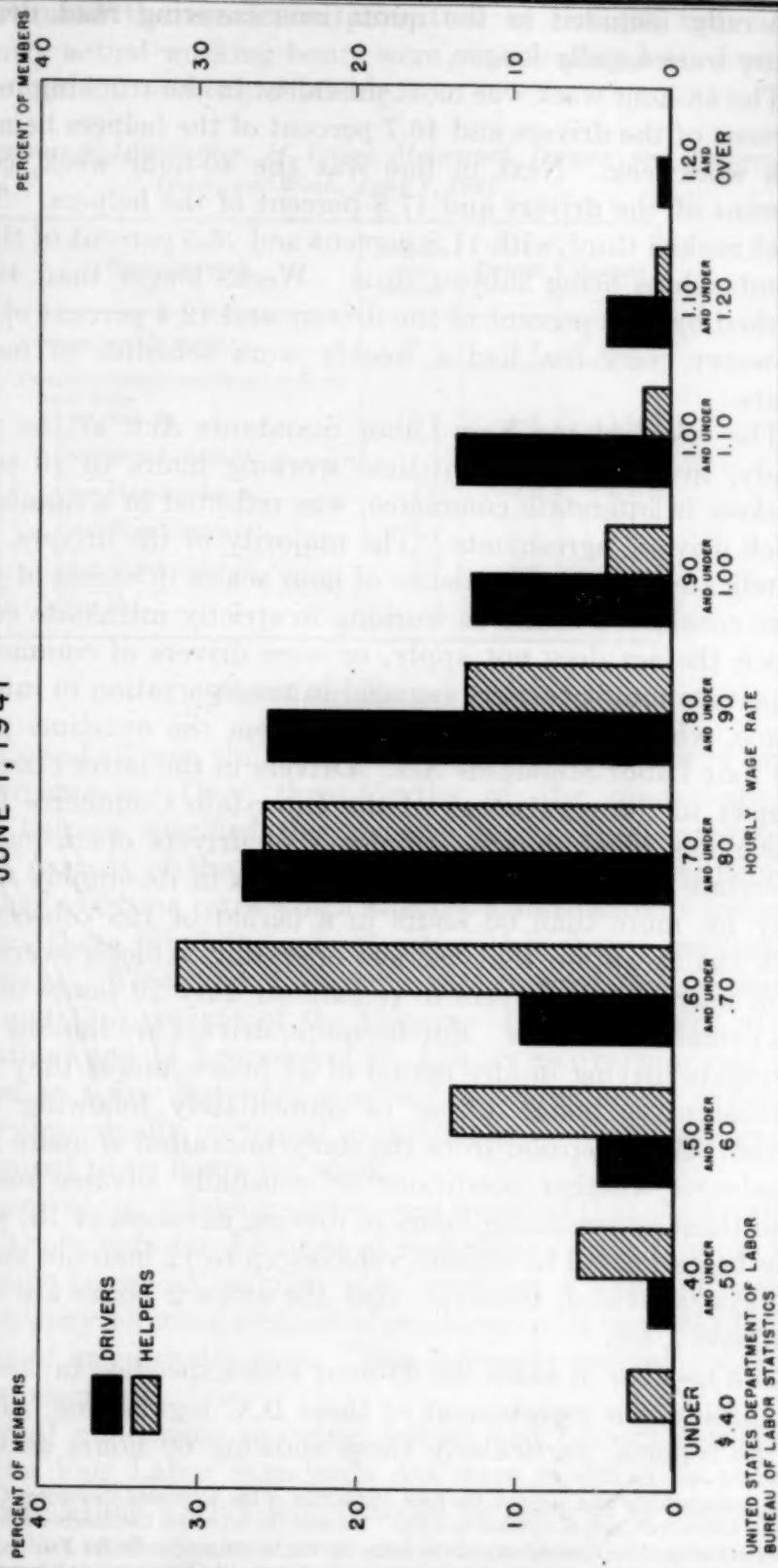
Classified hourly rate	Drivers and helpers	Drivers	Helpers	Classified hourly rate	Drivers and helpers	Drivers	Helpers
Average hourly rate.....	\$0.808	\$0.829	\$0.686	Percent of members whose rates were—			
Percent of members whose rates were—				80 and under 85 cents .....	12.5	13.8	5.2
Under 40 cents.....	0.5	0.1	2.8	85 and under 90 cents .....	11.3	11.8	7.9
40 and under 45 cents.....	1.0	.9	1.6	90 and under 95 cents .....	7.4	8.2	2.9
45 and under 50 cents.....	1.1	.6	4.4	95 cents and under \$1.....	4.0	4.5	1.2
50 and under 55 cents.....	3.1	2.4	7.3	\$1 and under \$1.05.....	8.4	9.6	1.5
55 and under 60 cents.....	3.0	2.3	6.8	\$1.05 and under \$1.10.....	3.5	4.1	.2
60 and under 65 cents.....	5.3	4.0	12.9	\$1.10 and under \$1.15.....	2.4	2.6	.9
65 and under 70 cents.....	7.6	5.6	18.5	\$1.15 and under \$1.20.....	1.3	1.5	
70 and under 75 cents.....	9.8	9.4	11.9	\$1.20 and under \$1.25.....	.3	.3	
75 and under 80 cents.....	17.1	17.8	14.0	\$1.25 and over.....	.4	.5	

### *Weekly Hours, 1941*

The average full-time weekly hours in effect for union drivers was 47.2 on June 1, 1941, while helpers averaged 46.3 hours. The higher

DISTRIBUTION OF UNION MOTORTRUCK DRIVERS AND HELPERS  
ACCORDING TO HOURLY WAGE RATES

JUNE 1, 1941



average for drivers resulted mainly from the fact that helpers were not generally included in the quotations covering road drivers, whose hours were usually longer.

The 48-hour week was most prevalent in the trucking industry, 41.9 percent of the drivers and 46.7 percent of the helpers being subject to this workweek. Next in line was the 40-hour week, covering 17.2 percent of the drivers and 17.8 percent of the helpers. The 44-hour week ranked third, with 11.8 percent and 15.5 percent of the respective memberships being subject to it. Weeks longer than 48 hours were worked by 22.6 percent of the drivers and 12.4 percent of the helpers. However, very few had a weekly work schedule of more than 60 hours.

The effect of the Fair Labor Standards Act, at the time of this study, in limiting straight-time working hours to 40 per week for workers in interstate commerce, was reflected in a number of motor-truck drivers' agreements. The majority of the drivers, however, as is indicated by the prevalence of hour scales in excess of 40 per week, were considered either as working in strictly intrastate commerce, to which the act does not apply, or were drivers of common, contract, or private motor carriers engaged in transportation in interstate commerce, which are generally exempt from the overtime provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act. Drivers in the latter classification are subject to the regulations of the Interstate Commerce Commission, which has ruled that no employer of drivers operating vehicles in interstate commerce may require drivers in its employ to remain on duty for more than 60 hours in a period of 168 consecutive hours, with the exception that carriers operating vehicles every day of the week may permit drivers to remain on duty 70 hours in a period of 192 consecutive hours. Furthermore, drivers are limited to 10 hours' aggregate driving in any period of 24 hours, unless they are off duty 8 consecutive hours during or immediately following this driving period. An exception from the daily limitation is made in the event of adverse weather conditions or unusually adverse road or traffic conditions necessitating hours of driving in excess of 10, when drivers may be permitted to operate vehicles up to 12 hours in any given day or days, provided, however, that the extra 2 hours are necessary to complete a trip.<sup>2</sup>

In a number of cases the 60-hour scales specified in the agreements are basically a restatement of these ICC regulations. In a number of the reports, particularly those showing 60 hours as the full-time

<sup>2</sup> An essential difference between the hour regulations of the Interstate Commerce Commission and of the Fair Labor Standards Act should be noted. Whereas the Interstate Commerce Commission regulations specify maximum hours which may not be exceeded, the regulations under the Fair Labor Standards Act merely specify the maximum hours that may be worked at straight-time rates, and do not limit the number of total hours that may be worked, provided time and one-half is paid for all hours in excess of the specified normal week.

workweek, it was indicated that the hours specified in the agreement merely constituted the maximum permitted at straight time, and that frequently actual working hours were considerably less, depending upon the amount of work available.

TABLE 2.—*Percentage Distribution of Union Motortruck Drivers and Helpers, by Hours per Week, June 1, 1941*

Hours per week	Drivers and helpers	Drivers	Helpers
Average weekly hours.....	47.1	47.2	46.3
Percent of members whose hours per week were—			
Less than 40.....	0.8	0.8	1.3
40.....	17.3	17.2	17.8
Over 40 and under 44.....	1.0	1.1	.2
44.....	12.4	11.8	15.5
Over 44 and under 48.....	4.9	4.6	6.1
48.....	42.6	41.9	46.7
Over 48 and under 54.....	9.3	10.5	2.5
54.....	6.2	5.8	8.3
Over 54 and under 60.....	1.4	1.6	.7
60.....	3.9	4.5	.8
Over 60.....	.2	.2	.1

### Overtime Rates

Time and one-half was the most prevalent overtime rate in union trucking agreements. Over three-fourths of the quotations for drivers and helpers specified this penalty rate. These quotations covered 65.8 percent of the drivers and 73.2 percent of the helpers. The only other overtime rates which affected a substantial number of members were those providing a fixed rate rather than a multiple of the regular wage. This type of overtime rate covered 15.6 percent of the drivers and 11.5 percent of the helpers. In 13.3 percent of the driver quotations and 14.2 percent of the helpers no overtime rate was specified, and in a few instances overtime was prohibited. Prohibitions of overtime usually pertained to interstate over-the-road drivers who were limited to 60 hours per week.

A great many of the trucking agreements specified that the overtime rate should apply only on the basis of cumulative weekly hours and not on a daily basis. A number also provided a daily or weekly tolerance, whereby a limited amount of overtime could be worked without payment of any penalty rate. This tolerance generally was not over 6 hours per week.

A number of quotations covering drivers and helpers considered subject to the Fair Labor Standards Act were modified to provide that the straight-time weekly hours should be reduced to conform to the law, but that each regular driver and helper should be guaranteed sufficient overtime each week to equal the full working time specified in the previous agreements. In some instances the hourly rate for

straight time was retained unchanged under the new schedule of hours, which resulted in larger net weekly earnings for the members affected. In other cases net earnings were increased by a combination of an increase in the scale of wages and an increase in the number of guaranteed overtime hours.

**TABLE 3.—Overtime Rates Provided for Motortruck Drivers and Helpers in Union Agreements, June 1, 1941**

Overtime rate	Drivers and helpers		Drivers		Helpers	
	Number of quotations	Percent of members affected	Number of quotations	Percent of members affected	Number of quotations	Percent of members affected
No penalty rate provided.....	348	13.7	279	14.1	69	11.5
Time and one-third.....	42	3.4	28	3.4	14	3.5
Time and one-half.....	1,989	66.9	1,610	65.8	379	73.2
Double time.....	14	.4	9	.4	5	.3
Fixed penalty scales <sup>1</sup> .....	163	15.0	146	15.6	17	11.5
Overtime prohibited.....	27	.6	26	.7	1	(2)

<sup>1</sup> Not a multiple of regular rate.

<sup>2</sup> Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

### *Trend of Wage and Hour Scales*

Data based on comparable quotations for the trucking industry are available only for the past 5 years. Since 1936 the movement of wage rates has been consistently upward and that of allowed weekly hours has been generally downward.

Union hourly wage rates for drivers increased 3.8 percent, on the average, between June 1, 1940, and June 1, 1941. Helpers recorded a 5.0 percent increase, and for the combined classifications the advance amounted to 4.0 percent. These increases were the largest since a comparable period in 1936-37.

Full-time hours for drivers and helpers, on the average, decreased 0.7 percent during the year ending June 1, 1941. A great number of the reductions in hour scales were from 42 to 40 in order to comply with the Fair Labor Standards Act, requiring a 40-hour week after October 24, 1940.

**TABLE 4.—Percent of Change in Union Hourly Wage Rates and Weekly Hours for Motortruck Drivers and Helpers, 1936 to 1941**

Year	Drivers and helpers		Drivers		Helpers	
	Hourly wage rates	Weekly hours	Hourly wage rates	Weekly hours	Hourly wage rates	Weekly hours
1936 to 1937.....	+6.6	-0.9	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
1937 to 1938.....	+3.6	0	+3.6	0	+3.5	0
1938 to 1939.....	+2.2	-.9	+2.2	-0.8	+2.6	-1.2
1939 to 1940.....	+2.0	-.9	+2.1	-.8	+2.0	-1.3
1940 to 1941.....	+4.0	-.7	+3.8	-.7	+5.0	-.7

<sup>1</sup> Not available.

*Changes Between 1940 and 1941*

*Wage rates.*—A substantial majority of the organized truck drivers and helpers received increases in hourly wage rates during the year ending June 1, 1941. A slightly larger proportion of the helpers (59.3 percent) received raises than did the drivers (54.6 percent). Reductions in scales were reported for only 1.1 percent of the drivers and 2.5 percent of the helpers.

TABLE 5.—*Number of Changes in Union Rates of Motortruck Drivers and Helpers, and Percent of Members Affected, June 1, 1941, as Compared with June 1, 1940*

Type of change	Drivers and helpers		Drivers		Helpers	
	Number of quotations	Percent of members affected	Number of quotations	Percent of members affected	Number of quotations	Percent of members affected
Increase.....	1,156	55.3	926	54.6	230	59.3
Decrease.....	31	1.3	26	1.1	5	2.5
No change.....	1,025	43.4	836	44.3	189	38.2

Of the total number of drivers receiving increases during the year (54.6 percent), over three-fourths had their rates raised by less than 10 percent. Increases of at least 5 percent but less than 10 percent were most common among truck drivers (23.3 percent of the membership). However, increases of less than 5 percent were also quite prevalent (19.4 percent). Only 11.9 percent of all drivers included in the survey received advances of at least 10 percent over their previous rates, most of these being less than 15 percent.

TABLE 6.—*Number and Percent of Increases in Rates of Motortruck Drivers and Helpers, and Percent of Members Affected, June 1, 1941, as Compared with June 1, 1940*

Amount of increase	Drivers and helpers		Drivers		Helpers	
	Number of quotations	Percent of members affected	Number of quotations	Percent of members affected	Number of quotations	Percent of members affected
Less than 5 percent.....	294	17.7	251	19.4	43	7.8
5 and under 10 percent.....	506	24.1	400	23.3	106	30.0
10 and under 15 percent.....	206	9.9	162	8.8	44	16.1
15 and under 20 percent.....	65	1.6	50	1.6	15	1.7
20 and under 25 percent.....	48	.9	36	.7	12	1.7
25 and under 30 percent.....	16	.4	10	.3	6	.8
30 and under 35 percent.....	10	.2	9	.2	1	(1)
35 and under 40 percent.....	3	.2	3	.2		
40 percent and over.....	8	.3	5	.1	3	1.2

<sup>1</sup> Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

The helpers, on the other hand, had 63.7 percent of the number receiving increases, or 37.8 percent of the total membership benefiting by raises of less than 10 percent. Increases of less than 5 percent covered 7.8 percent of the membership, and 30 percent had their 1940

scales advanced by between 5 percent and 10 percent. The latter group comprised a slight majority of the total number of helpers receiving increases during the year. An additional 16.1 percent had their rates raised by between 10 percent and 15 percent, and 5.4 percent received advances of 15 percent or more.

*Maximum weekly hours.*—More than 16 percent of the quotations covering drivers reported a reduction in straight-time working hours during the past year. These changes affected 11.3 percent of the organized drivers. Among helpers, decreases in maximum weekly hours were listed in 17.3 percent of the quotations covering 12.1 percent of the members. A great number of reductions in hours were from 42 to 40 in order to comply with the Fair Labor Standards Act. Slightly more than 87 percent of the members in both classifications retained their 1940 working schedules.

TABLE 7.—Number of Changes in Union Hours of Motortruck Drivers and Helpers, and Percent of Members Affected, June 1, 1941, as Compared with June 1, 1940

Type of change	Drivers and helpers		Drivers		Helpers	
	Number of quotations	Percent of members affected	Number of quotations	Percent of members affected	Number of quotations	Percent of members affected
Increase.....	42	1.4	40	1.5	2	0.6
Decrease.....	356	11.4	284	11.3	72	12.1
No change.....	1,774	87.2	1,432	87.2	342	87.3

### Average Rates by City

Table 8 shows the averages for the combined driver and helper occupations in each city included in the survey. Sufficient quotations to compute an average were not obtained in two cities, Charleston, S. C., and Jackson, Miss. In four others, Charlotte, N. C., El Paso, Tex., and Memphis and Nashville, Tenn., no helper scales were listed, and therefore the averages shown cover drivers only. In all other cities the average shown is a composite of drivers and helpers, each rate being weighted by the number of union members covered by it.

New York City had the highest rates, on the average, the composite amounting to 97.7 cents per hour. Its neighboring city, Newark, was next in line with an average of 95.0 cents. Butte and Seattle also had average rates of over 90 cents (94.5 and 92.7 cents, respectively). Eight additional cities had higher averages than the 80.8 cents average for all cities: Los Angeles (88.7 cents), San Francisco (88.6 cents), Spokane (87.3 cents), Portland, Oreg. (86.6 cents), Cleveland (85.4 cents), Detroit (83.7 cents), Chicago (82.4 cents), and Pittsburgh (81.8 cents). Twenty cities had average rates between 70 and 80 cents; 25 between 60 and 70 cents; 11 between 50 and 60 cents, and only 3 under 50 cents. San Antonio had the lowest average (46.4 cents).

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TABLE 8.—*Average Hourly Rates of Union Motortruck Drivers and Helpers, by City, June 1, 1941*<sup>1</sup>

City	Average hourly rate	City	Average hourly rate	City	Average hourly rate
New York, N. Y.	\$0.977	Springfield, Mass.	\$0.737	Madison, Wis.	\$0.640
Newark, N. J.	.950	Peoria, Ill.	.732	Birmingham, Ala.	.638
Butte, Mont.	.945	Minneapolis, Minn.	.730	Salt Lake City, Utah	.634
Seattle, Wash.	.927	South Bend, Ind.	.727	Des Moines, Iowa	.631
Los Angeles, Calif.	.887	Scranton, Pa.	.723	Manchester, N. H.	.627
San Francisco, Calif.	.886	St. Louis, Mo.	.717	Oklahoma City, Okla.	.624
Spokane, Wash.	.873	Dayton, Ohio	.711	El Paso, Tex.	.617
Portland, Oreg.	.866	Worcester, Mass.	.710	Binghamton, N. Y.	.615
Cleveland, Ohio.	.854	Rochester, N. Y.	.704	Jacksonville, Fla.	.610
Detroit, Mich.	.837	Providence, R. I.	.699	Memphis, Tenn.	.597
Chicago, Ill.	.824	Youngstown, Ohio	.694	Omaha, Nebr.	.588
Pittsburgh, Pa.	.818	Washington, D. C.	.690	Houston, Tex.	.558
<i>Average for all cities</i>					
Philadelphia, Pa.	.808	Erie, Pa.	.688	Mobile, Ala.	.544
Boston, Mass.	.789	Reading, Pa.	.687	Charlotte, N. C.	.539
Phoenix, Ariz.	.785	Little Rock, Ark.	.673	Nashville, Tenn.	.533
Milwaukee, Wis.	.770	Duluth, Minn.	.671	Tampa, Fla.	.528
St. Paul, Minn.	.766	Charleston, W. Va.	.662	Norfolk, Va.	.522
Toledo, Ohio.	.759	Kansas City, Mo.	.660	Richmond, Va.	.510
New Haven, Conn.	.758	Portland, Maine	.655	New Orleans, La.	.507
Indianapolis, Ind.	.756	Grand Rapids, Mich.	.653	Atlanta, Ga.	.501
Buffalo, N. Y.	.749	York, Pa.	.651	Dallas, Tex.	.491
Cincinnati, Ohio.	.749	Denver, Colo.	.650	Wichita, Kans.	.476
Rock Island (Ill.) district <sup>2</sup>	.746	Baltimore, Md.	.649	San Antonio, Tex.	.464
		Columbus, Ohio	.646		
		Louisville, Ky.	.642		

<sup>1</sup> Does not include drivers paid on a commission or mileage basis. Averages are weighted according to number receiving each different rate.

<sup>2</sup> Includes Davenport, Iowa, Moline, Ill., and Rock Island, Ill.

<sup>3</sup> No helpers included in average.



## WAGE-RATE CHANGES IN UNITED STATES INDUSTRIES

THE following table gives information concerning wage-rate adjustments occurring during the month ending November 15, 1941, as shown by reports received from manufacturing and nonmanufacturing establishments which supply employment data to the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

As the Bureau's survey does not cover all establishments in an industry and, furthermore, as some firms may have failed to report wage-rate changes these figures should not be construed as representing the total number of wage changes occurring in manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries.

*Wage-Rate Changes Reported by Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Establishments  
During Month Ending November 15, 1941<sup>1</sup>*

Group and industry	Establishments		Employees		Average percentage change in wage rates of employees having increases
	Total number covered	Number reporting increases	Total number covered	Number reporting increases	
All manufacturing	33,678	630	7,801,794	173,900	8.0
Durable goods	12,631	322	4,352,342	98,086	9.1
Nondurable goods	21,047	303	3,449,452	75,814	6.5
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery	2,575	48	1,115,536	14,665	6.9
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	307	7	563,289	7,984	6.2
Forgings, iron and steel	97	3	20,320	316	6.3
Hardware	154	3	49,319	769	7.3
Plumbers' supplies	108	4	27,184	329	6.9
Stamped and enameled ware	246	6	50,304	675	15.2
Tools (not including edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	132	3	21,879	347	5.9
Wirework	173	6	28,894	964	6.1
Screw-machine products	83	4	22,119	217	9.5
Machinery, not including transportation equipment	3,857	94	1,260,687	25,582	6.8
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	610	10	340,180	3,113	7.7
Foundry and machine-shop products	2,257	55	413,322	11,852	8.0
Machine tools	200	11	100,432	1,435	5.1
Textile machinery and parts	123	5	24,692	3,337	9.8
Machine-tool accessories	110	3	19,726	516	12.4
Transportation equipment	855	16	1,126,608	30,614	12.1
Aircraft	119	4	280,505	24,664	12.8
Automobiles	402	8	482,746	4,472	8.9
Nonferrous metals and their products	1,095	29	258,644	7,697	8.3
Brass, bronze, and copper products	352	5	101,066	201	6.5
Smelting and refining—copper, lead, and zinc	57	14	32,896	6,294	8.5
Sheet-metal work	137	3	7,328	236	10.6
Lumber and allied products	2,897	105	353,789	16,869	9.8
Furniture	723	25	118,987	4,387	8.9
Lumber:					
Millwork	546	13	41,043	2,617	8.2
Sawmills	671	33	126,447	4,379	11.3
Caskets and morticians goods	102	5	6,049	98	8.0
Wood, turned and shaped	88	7	7,013	678	7.9
Wooden boxes, other than cigar	129	13	12,971	2,496	9.5
Stone, clay, and glass products	1,552	30	237,078	2,659	8.7
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	518	8	48,509	406	8.5
Glass	150	4	76,450	1,095	10.8
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	245	9	6,196	167	3.4
Textiles and their products	6,831	91	1,426,236	49,004	5.9
Fabrics	3,689	84	1,067,502	48,565	5.8
Cotton goods	792	38	438,471	38,601	5.5
Cotton small wares	129	5	16,223	979	10.0
Dyeing and finishing textiles	221	4	58,525	1,082	5.5
Hosiery	483	7	113,682	1,049	8.2
Silk and rayon goods	470	6	74,488	2,461	7.1
Woolen and worsted goods	412	6	160,723	1,661	6.4
Cordage and twine	58	3	14,924	239	2.4
Wearing apparel	3,142	7	358,644	430	16.0
Clothing, men's	1,133	5	156,415	146	17.7
Leather and its manufactures	1,141	20	246,048	2,158	7.0
Boots and shoes	507	8	169,018	1,153	6.9
Leather	171	6	40,257	671	7.4
Boot and shoe cut stock and findings	123	5	9,744	147	11.3
Food and kindred products	5,258	55	539,531	6,815	9.8
Baking	1,011	16	82,468	2,341	10.2
Canning and preserving	1,069	3	102,493	490	14.3
Confectionery	277	5	47,027	1,027	10.3
Slaughtering and meat packing	316	9	130,004	980	5.8
Feeds, prepared	104	3	4,041	39	14.1

<sup>1</sup> Figures are not given for some industries to avoid disclosure of information concerning individual establishments. They are, however, included where practicable in "all manufacturing," and in the various industry groups. No decreases were reported.

*Wage-Rate Changes Reported by Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Establishments  
During Month Ending November 15, 1941—Continued*

Group and industry	Establishments		Employees		Average percentage change in wage rates of employees having increases
	Total number covered	Number reporting increases	Total number covered	Number reporting increases	
Paper and printing	3,948	67	415,888	6,923	7.0
Boxes, paper	655	10	54,696	801	9.4
Paper and pulp	437	17	143,389	4,434	7.2
Printing and publishing:					
Book and job	1,525	20	83,034	619	5.4
Newspapers and periodicals	725	16	64,935	977	5.5
Chemical, petroleum, and coal products	2,281	56	396,403	8,033	6.2
Chemicals	236	8	81,544	789	6.2
Druggists preparations	90	3	16,064	122	5.8
Explosives	43	3	22,406	357	11.3
Paints and varnishes	505	12	24,549	1,085	8.1
Petroleum refining	179	7	77,118	665	7.5
Soap	83	5	17,408	1,174	7.0
Compressed and liquefied gases	76	4	2,653	84	4.6
Rubber products	965	6	146,443	1,792	9.1
Miscellaneous	1,095	11	203,200	881	5.7
Instruments—professional, scientific, and commercial	68	4	31,280	102	10.0
All nonmanufacturing (except building construction)	3,970	1,570	3,163,000	75,833	7.2
Bituminous coal mining	1,100	7	263,200	554	5.9
Metalliferous mining	1,390	20	79,600	9,034	4.8
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	1,090	13	42,900	933	6.4
Crude-petroleum production	480	16	40,100	2,293	5.6
Public utilities:					
Telephone and telegraph	9,670	903	339,000	16,548	9.9
Natural gas	1,600	3	27,600	936	5.1
Electric light and power	2,760	68	244,100	23,966	6.8
Manufactured gas	1,160	3	34,300	782	7.0
Street railways and busses	1,350	9	134,400	3,249	7.8
Wholesale trade	15,130	186	364,300	5,047	6.4
Retail trade	52,800	324	1,134,900	11,144	6.6
Hotels (year-round)	1,930	6	145,800	147	10.1
Laundries	1,270	9	86,700	1,002	11.9
Dyeing and cleaning	840	3	18,900	198	8.7

\* Approximate—based on previous month's sample.



## SALARIES IN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES, 1939-40

SALARIES of faculty members in colleges and universities of the United States vary widely among different types of institutions and also as between large and small institutions of the same type, according to a report published by the United States Office of Education.<sup>1</sup> For example, in 1939-40 the median salaries of professors on a 9-month basis in 12 large State teachers colleges averaged \$3,244, as compared with \$4,952 in 5 large land-grant institutions. In 5 of the smallest land-grant institutions, the average was \$2,594, and in 25 small State teachers colleges, \$2,931. Data were obtained for 17 white and 17 Negro land-grant institutions in 17 Southern States. In the white

<sup>1</sup> United States Office of Education. Circular No. 196: College Salaries, 1939-40.

institutions, professors on a 9-month basis averaged \$3,658, and in the Negro institutions, \$1,821. Similar differences prevailed among other types of institutions and teaching positions.

Table 1 shows median salaries in four occupation groups, on both a 9-month and a 12-month basis, in the colleges and universities covered by the survey. Information is presented separately for the 69 publicly controlled land-grant institutions in the United States, which include some of the largest colleges and universities. A land-grant institution is a college or university that has been designated, by the legislature of the State in which it is located, to receive benefits under the Federal Morrill Act of 1862, which provided for a Federal grant of land, or its equivalent in scrip, to each State for the support of such an institution.

**TABLE 1.—Median Salaries of Full-Time Faculty Members in 305 Colleges and Universities in the United States, 1939–40**

Institutions	Number of institutions	Professors, on basis of—		Associate professors, on basis of—		Assistant professors, on basis of—		Instructors, on basis of—	
		9 months	12 months	9 months	12 months	9 months	12 months	9 months	12 months
<i>Publicly controlled institutions</i>									
White land-grant institutions	152	\$4,245	\$4,201	\$3,272	\$3,233	\$2,605	\$2,760	\$1,937	\$2,058
Largest land-grant institutions	5	4,952	5,219	3,627	3,841	3,021	3,132	2,210	2,252
Smallest land-grant institutions	5	2,594	3,271	2,000	2,664	1,701	2,437	1,642	1,938
White land-grant institutions in 17 Southern States	17	3,658	3,903	2,926	2,975	2,352	2,484	1,840	1,886
Negro land-grant institutions in 17 Southern States	17	1,821	2,078	1,701	1,868	1,560	1,628	1,293	1,209
State universities	16	3,890	4,750	3,027	4,013	2,432	3,028	1,908	1,738
State colleges	15	3,179	3,077	2,579	2,738	2,135	2,133	1,662	1,817
Small State teachers' colleges	25	2,931	2,958	2,547	2,266	2,043	2,201	1,668	1,917
Medium State teachers' colleges	15	3,538	3,524	2,982	2,815	2,570	2,357	2,167	2,038
Large State teachers' colleges	12	3,244	3,529	2,579	2,721	2,337	2,514	2,063	2,135
<i>Privately controlled institutions</i>									
Men's colleges	16	3,239	4,602	3,156	3,434	2,625	2,778	2,069	2,067
Women's colleges	38	3,052	3,548	2,756	3,023	2,484	2,355	1,747	1,833
Large universities	7	5,117	5,631	3,625	3,803	2,946	3,199	2,064	2,247
Medium universities	16	4,320	4,950	3,389	3,500	2,644	3,167	1,841	2,178
Small colleges	76	1,788	2,102	1,810	2,063	1,688	1,763	1,108	1,392

<sup>1</sup> The total of 52 includes other land-grant institutions than the 3 enumerated thereunder.

Fifty-one land-grant institutions reported on salaries in the same manner for 8 different years within the period, 1928 to 1940. For the last year, 1939–40, one additional institution reported. Data for four occupations, taken from the summary of these reports by the Office of Education, are given in table 2.

TABLE 2.—Median Salaries of Full-Time Faculty Members in 51 Land-Grant Institutions, 1928-40<sup>1</sup>

Year	Professors, on basis of—		Associate professors, on basis of—		Assistant professors, on basis of—		Instructors, on basis of—	
	9 months	11-12 months	9 months	11-12 months	9 months	11-12 months	9 months	11-12 months
1928-29	\$4,278	\$4,161	\$3,342	\$3,207	\$2,738	\$2,880	\$2,047	\$2,134
1929-30	4,457	4,335	3,349	3,395	2,818	2,936	2,060	2,208
1930-31	4,513	4,293	3,362	3,414	2,837	2,957	2,066	2,168
1934-35	3,775	3,683	2,903	2,906	2,449	2,516	1,769	1,960
1935-36	3,951	3,860	2,973	3,017	2,486	2,574	1,792	2,012
1936-37	4,166	3,805	3,144	3,032	2,556	2,623	1,842	2,038
1937-38	4,163	4,057	3,189	3,175	2,592	2,750	1,892	2,106
1939-40	4,245	4,201	3,272	3,233	2,605	2,760	1,937	2,058

<sup>1</sup> Salaries in 52 institutions are given for 1939-40.



## WEEKLY EARNINGS IN GREAT BRITAIN AND NORTHERN IRELAND IN 1941<sup>1</sup>

WORKERS engaged in manufacturing and in some of the principal nonmanufacturing industries of Great Britain and Northern Ireland in the week ended July 12, 1941, had average weekly earnings of 75s. 5d.<sup>2</sup>—an advance of 42 percent over the last pay week of October 1938, the date of the last pre-war inquiry. For men 21 years of age and over, the increase was 43 percent, bringing their average earnings to 99s. 3d. Weekly earnings of youths and boys rose 57 percent, to 40s. 7d.; those of women 18 years of age and over, 36 percent, to 44s. 4d.; and for girls the rise amounted to 35 percent, bringing their earnings to 25s. 2d.

The upward movement in earnings from 1938 to 1941 reflects the combined effect of wage-rate rises; fuller employment with longer working hours and more extended use of night shifts; extension of systems of wage payments by results; and changes in the proportions of men, boys, women, and girls employed in different industries and occupations. From information available to the Ministry of Labor and National Service it is estimated that wage rates for a full-time week, exclusive of overtime pay, rose about 18 percent. The difference between this figure and the 42-percent increase shown in actual weekly earnings reflects the net effects of the other factors mentioned.

In surveying the level of workers' earnings in 1941, the Ministry of Labor and National Service sent inquiries to all employers who had supplied wage information for October 1938 and July 1940,<sup>3</sup> and also to a number of establishments (chiefly in the engineering and allied

<sup>1</sup> Data are from Great Britain, Ministry of Labor Gazette (London), November 1941.

<sup>2</sup> Average exchange rate of pound (20 shillings) in July, 1941=\$4.04.

<sup>3</sup> For summaries of the earlier returns, see Monthly Labor Review for February (p. 455) and March (p. 716) 1941.

industries) which were not in operation on the earlier dates. Coverage was restricted to wage earners at work in the specified week, other than office staffs, shop assistants, and home workers. Foremen, transport workers, warehousemen, etc., were to be included, but managers, commercial travelers, clerks and typists, and salaried persons generally were excluded. The wages shown represent total earnings (including bonuses) before any deductions were made for workers' contributions to statutory insurance schemes, such as health, pensions, and unemployment.

Forms were sent to approximately 57,400 establishments in connection with the 1941 study. Of this total, some 56,600 furnished returns that were suitable for tabulation. Data were obtained for over 6,000,000 wage earners of all grades of skill.

Although the average earnings of all workers rose 42 percent from 1938 to 1941, variations were great among the different industries. Among the 16 main industrial groups for which information is given, the range in the increases was from 18 percent in the paper and printing group and 20 percent in public-utility services to 48 percent in building and contracting and 49 percent in the metal, engineering, and shipbuilding industries. In comparing the changes for all workers combined, it is pointed out by the Ministry of Labor that earnings are affected to some extent by changes that have taken place during the war in the relative proportions of men, boys, women, and girls employed. In most cases the proportion of men has declined while that of women has increased.

Over the year, July 1940–July 1941, average earnings of all workers combined rose 9 percent. The variations were from 12 percent for men to 16 percent for youths and boys. However, as the 1940 figures by age and sex included only 80 percent of the total number of workers, as compared with 95 percent covered by the figures for all workers combined, "the averages shown for men, boys, women, and girls at those two dates rest on a less comparable basis than those relating to 'all workers' combined." The report under review also points out that in July 1940, many munitions plants were speeding output and very long hours were worked, sometimes 7 days a week. In July 1941, hours of work in munitions industries were considerably in excess of the comparatively normal schedule of October 1938, but were shorter on the whole than in July 1940.

The following table shows comparisons of average weekly earnings of men and of all workers (including men, youths, women, and girls) in the week ended July 12, 1941, and the percentage changes in these earnings from the last pay week in October 1938 to the 1941 pay period.

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*Average Earnings in Great Britain and Northern Ireland, Week Ended July 12, 1941,  
and Percent of Increase Over October 1938*

Industry	Average weekly earnings, week ended July 12, 1941		Percent of increase over last pay week in October 1938	
	All workers <sup>1</sup>	Men only (21 and over)	All workers <sup>1</sup>	Men only (21 and over)
			s. d.	s. d.
All industries <sup>2</sup>	75 5	99 3	42.3	43.0
Iron, stone, etc., mining and quarrying	78 4	84 7	38.8	40.4
Treatment of nonmetalliferous mining products	85 0	94 6	38.2	41.9
Brick, pottery, and glass industries	64 10	88 7	35.8	40.2
Chemical, paint, oil, etc., industries	75 1	97 9	35.7	41.5
Metal, engineering, and shipbuilding industries	88 8	111 5	49.2	48.7
Textile industries	52 0	81 8	37.7	42.5
Leather, leather goods, and fur industries	62 10	86 6	31.4	34.5
Clothing industries	45 6	84 11	27.9	30.5
Food, drink, and tobacco industries	60 7	87 8	29.4	33.0
Woodworking industries	68 9	87 8	31.4	31.5
Paper, printing, etc., industries	65 4	96 7	17.9	15.9
Building and contracting, etc.	90 5	96 8	47.6	46.3
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries	66 11	101 3	40.6	45.3
Transport, storage, etc.	84 9	92 8	25.6	29.8
Public-utility services	71 5	77 6	20.2	23.0
Government industrial establishments <sup>3</sup>	89 5	110 10	26.8	47.3

<sup>1</sup> Sample larger than for men only, as some firms did not give the break-down.

<sup>2</sup> No adjustment was made to allow for the varying proportions of workers in different industries.

<sup>3</sup> The percentage increases are based on data supplied by firms furnishing returns on both dates; the actual average earnings are for a larger sample in the July 1941 period.

<sup>4</sup> The returns are materially affected by the fact that the 1941 figures cover a number of establishments, employing considerable numbers of workers, which were not in operation in the 1938 period.

Reporting was not equally complete in all 16 industries. For example, a higher proportion of employers in the engineering industries made returns than in the building industry. Therefore, revised averages will be published by the Ministry of Labor and National Service at a later date. Weights will be calculated for the estimated number of wage earners in the different industries. If the experience with the inquiry made in 1940 is a criterion, the results will not be substantially different from those obtained from the sample study.



## MINIMUM WAGE FOR AGRICULTURAL WORKERS IN ENGLAND AND WALES<sup>1</sup>

A NATIONAL minimum wage of £3 weekly was established for adult male agricultural labor in England and Wales late in 1941, by action of the Central Agricultural Wages Board. This is a rise of 12s. weekly over the minimum of 48s. adopted in 1940.<sup>2</sup> Before deciding upon the £3 base the Wages Board had recommended payment of at least 56s. weekly, but the higher minimum finally was adopted, with the approval of most of the county committees.

<sup>1</sup> Manchester Guardian Weekly (Manchester), November 21, 1941; and Labor Press Service (London, Labor Party Press), November 26, 1941.

<sup>2</sup> See Monthly Labor Review, August 1940 (pp. 418, 419).

Since 1924 regional minimum wages have been established in agriculture under special legislation. The rates have been given statutory effect by orders made by the Central Agricultural Wages Board. Under the terms of an amendment to the law governing agricultural pay, adopted in 1940, the Central Agricultural Wages Board was required to fix national minimum wages in England and Wales, and as stated above a wage order was issued in 1940 and again in 1941.

According to a report from American consular offices in Great Britain made in 1938<sup>2</sup> the average weekly minimum wage, which had fallen to 30s. 5d. in January 1934, was 34s. 6d. at that time. Ordinary workers averaged 37s. in 1938; horsemen, 40s.; and stockmen, 42s.

<sup>2</sup> Report No. 234 dated June 15, 1938 (p. 202).

## *Labor Turn-Over*

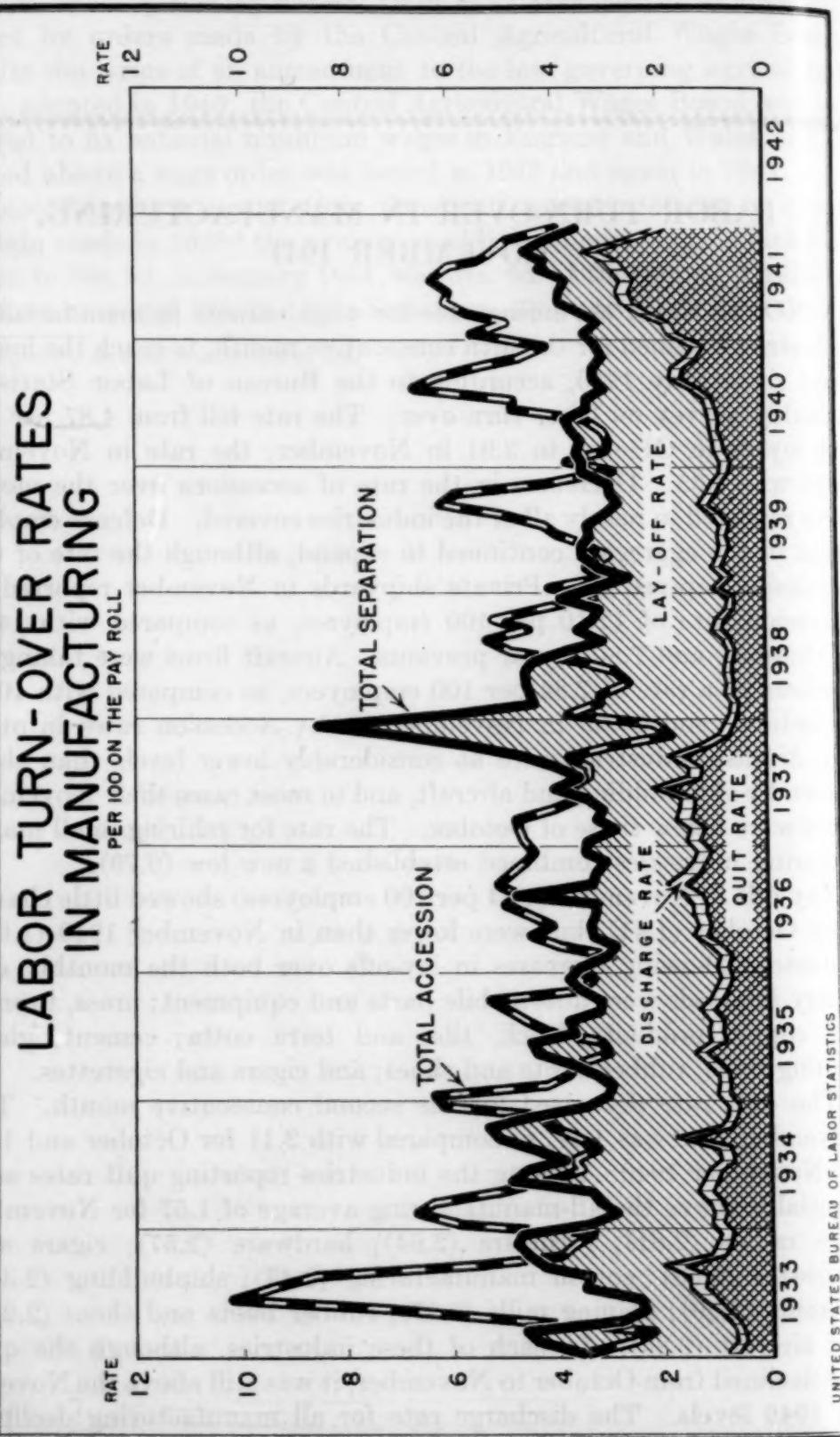
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### **LABOR TURN-OVER IN MANUFACTURING, NOVEMBER 1941**

IN NOVEMBER the hiring rate for wage earners in manufacturing industries declined for the fifth consecutive month, to reach the lowest level since May 1940, according to the Bureau of Labor Statistics monthly survey on labor turn-over. The rate fell from 4.87 per 100 employees in October to 3.91 in November; the rate in November 1940 was 4.65. Decreases in the rate of accessions over the month were reported in nearly all of the industries covered. Defense employment in the aggregate continued to expand, although the rate of this expansion tapered off. Private shipyards in November reported an accession rate of 12.40 per 100 employees, as compared with 14.60 in October, and 7.80 a year previous. Aircraft firms were taking on workers at a rate of 7.84 per 100 employees, as compared with 10.62 in October and 10.33 in November 1940. Accession rates in other key defense industries were at considerably lower levels than those shown by shipbuilding and aircraft, and in most cases their November rates were below those of October. The rate for rehiring in all manufacturing industries combined established a new low (0.79).

Lay-offs in November (1.44 per 100 employees) showed little change from October (1.41), but were lower than in November 1940 (1.60). Industries showing increases in lay-offs over both the monthly and yearly intervals were automobile parts and equipment; brass, bronze, and copper products; brick, tile, and terra cotta; cement; glass; planing mills; rubber boots and shoes; and cigars and cigarettes.

The quit rate decreased for the second consecutive month. The November rate was 1.57, as compared with 2.11 for October and 1.10 for November 1940. Among the industries reporting quit rates substantially above the all-manufacturing average of 1.57 for November were radios (2.81); furniture (2.64); hardware (2.57); cigars and cigarettes (2.50); cotton manufacturing (2.43); shipbuilding (2.39); sawmills (2.39); planing mills (2.27); rubber boots and shoes (2.22); and aircraft (2.20). In each of these industries, although the quit rate declined from October to November, it was still above the November 1940 levels. The discharge rate for all manufacturing declined from 0.28 in October to 0.24 in November and miscellaneous separa-



tions from 0.33 to 0.26. The military separation rate (included under miscellaneous separations) for November was 0.15, as compared with 0.21 in October and 0.13 in September. The November labor turn-over survey includes more than 8,500 representative manufacturing plants with nearly 4,100,000 industrial workers in 135 industries.

TABLE 1.—*Monthly Labor Turn-Over Rates in Representative Factories in 135 Industries*<sup>1</sup>

Class of turn-over and year	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Average
<b>Separations:</b>													
Quits:													
1941.....	1.31	1.33	1.70	2.08	2.20	2.06	2.25	2.46	2.81	2.11	1.57	—	—
1940.....	.63	.62	.67	.74	.77	.78	.85	1.10	1.37	1.31	1.10	0.99	0.91
Discharges:													
1941.....	.18	.19	.21	.25	.24	.26	.29	.30	.31	.28	.24	—	—
1940.....	.14	.16	.15	.13	.13	.14	.14	.16	.16	.19	.18	.16	.15
Lay-offs: <sup>2</sup>													
1941.....	1.61	1.20	1.06	1.19	1.08	1.03	1.40	1.13	1.16	1.41	1.44	—	—
1940.....	2.55	2.67	2.53	2.69	2.78	2.32	2.25	1.63	1.48	1.53	1.60	1.86	2.16
Miscellaneous separations:													
1941.....	.31	.43	.43	.37	.34	.36	.30	.25	.25	.33	.26	—	—
1940.....	.11	.11	.11	.10	.10	.12	.11	.11	.21	.20	.18	.15	.13
Total:													
1941.....	3.41	3.15	3.40	3.89	3.86	3.71	4.24	4.14	4.53	4.13	3.51	—	—
1940.....	3.43	3.56	3.46	3.66	3.78	3.36	3.35	3.00	3.22	3.23	3.06	3.16	3.35
<b>Accessions:</b>													
Rehirings:													
1941.....	1.45	1.08	1.24	1.04	.92	.90	1.04	1.11	.87	.86	.79	—	—
1940.....	1.96	1.26	1.38	1.42	1.49	2.06	1.94	3.04	2.20	1.22	1.18	1.13	1.69
New hirings:													
1941.....	4.09	3.84	4.38	5.00	5.03	5.41	4.96	4.32	4.29	4.01	3.12	—	—
1940.....	1.78	1.72	1.56	1.63	1.87	2.70	2.83	3.59	4.01	4.30	3.47	2.98	2.70
Total:													
1941.....	5.54	4.92	5.62	6.04	5.95	6.31	6.00	5.43	5.16	4.87	3.91	—	—
1940.....	3.74	2.98	2.94	3.05	3.36	4.78	4.77	6.63	6.21	5.52	4.65	4.11	4.39

<sup>1</sup> The various turn-over rates represent the number of quits, discharges, lay-offs, total separations, and accessions per 100 employees.

<sup>2</sup> Including temporary, indeterminate, and permanent lay-offs.

<sup>3</sup> Beginning with September 1940, workers leaving to enter the Army or Navy are included in "miscellaneous separations."

TABLE 2.—*Monthly Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Employees) in 42 Manufacturing Industries*<sup>1</sup>

Industry	Date	Separation rates					Accession rates		
		Quit <sup>2</sup>	Discharge	Lay-off	Mis-cel-lane-ous sepa-ra-tion <sup>2</sup>	Total separation	Re-hir-ing	New hiring	Total accession
Agricultural implements.....	Nov. 1941	0.87	0.15	1.39	0.25	2.66	0.45	1.73	2.18
	Oct. 1941	1.93	.24	1.58	.26	4.01	.85	3.66	4.51
	Nov. 1940	.63	.20	.71	.11	1.65	.85	2.92	3.77
Aircraft.....	Nov. 1941	2.20	.50	.26	.22	3.18	.42	7.42	7.84
	Oct. 1941	2.73	.55	.53	.27	4.08	.25	10.37	10.62
	Nov. 1940	2.06	.47	.68	.16	3.37	.86	9.47	10.33
Aluminum.....	Nov. 1941	1.14	.25	1.62	.65	3.66	.63	2.49	3.12
	Oct. 1941	1.55	.36	3.93	.65	6.49	2.23	2.30	4.53
	Nov. 1940	1.12	.15	.88	.66	2.81	.48	4.27	4.75
Automobiles and bodies.....	Nov. 1941	1.29	.17	1.51	.54	3.51	1.31	2.50	3.81
	Oct. 1941	1.57	.18	1.87	.47	4.09	1.86	2.41	4.27
	Nov. 1940	1.07	.10	2.22	.11	3.50	1.52	3.10	4.62
Automobile parts and equipment.....	Nov. 1941	1.69	.28	2.85	.33	5.15	1.05	4.01	5.06
	Oct. 1941	2.29	.37	1.86	.42	4.94	1.33	5.44	6.77
	Nov. 1940	1.24	.32	2.70	.13	4.39	1.01	5.28	6.29

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Monthly Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Employees) in 42 Manufacturing Industries*<sup>1</sup>—Continued

Industry	Date	Separation rates					Accession rates		
		Quit <sup>2</sup>	Discharge	Lay-off	Miscellaneous separation <sup>2</sup>	Total separation	Re-hiring	New hiring	Total accession
Boots and shoes.....	Nov. 1941	1.33	.16	2.04	0.26	3.79	1.04	2.04	3.08
	Oct. 1941	1.77	.19	1.37	.21	3.54	.85	2.83	3.68
	Nov. 1940	.78	.09	2.37	.11	3.35	1.31	1.89	3.20
Brass, bronze, and copper products.....	Nov. 1941	1.71	.27	2.48	.24	4.70	.79	2.51	3.30
	Oct. 1941	2.37	.39	1.52	.47	4.75	.82	3.34	4.16
	Nov. 1940	1.42	.35	.62	.13	2.52	.16	7.09	7.25
Brick, tile, and terra cotta.....	Nov. 1941	1.59	.15	2.35	.23	4.32	.67	1.69	2.36
	Oct. 1941	1.97	.32	1.67	.24	4.20	.40	2.84	3.24
	Nov. 1940	.94	.28	2.23	.14	3.59	1.26	2.81	4.07
Cast-iron pipe.....	Nov. 1941	1.45	.34	.21	.16	2.16	.53	1.51	2.04
	Oct. 1941	1.48	.42	.25	.28	2.43	.78	2.84	3.62
	Nov. 1940	.58	.37	.26	.07	1.28	.17	3.32	3.49
Cement.....	Nov. 1941	.78	.13	2.05	.41	3.37	.54	1.32	1.86
	Oct. 1941	.91	.14	1.14	.20	2.48	.30	1.72	2.02
	Nov. 1940	.39	.14	1.50	.31	2.34	.27	1.17	1.44
Chemicals.....	Nov. 1941	1.11	.24	.76	.30	2.41	.35	2.70	3.05
	Oct. 1941	1.30	.41	.71	.36	2.87	.29	3.72	4.01
	Nov. 1940	1.31	.11	.70	.08	2.29	.62	2.08	2.70
Cigars and cigarettes.....	Nov. 1941	2.50	.31	2.19	.18	5.18	.76	2.97	3.73
	Oct. 1941	2.83	.09	.33	.14	3.39	1.16	3.61	4.77
	Nov. 1940	1.16	.44	1.19	.17	2.96	.78	1.71	2.49
Cotton manufacturing.....	Nov. 1941	2.43	.28	.96	.22	3.89	.95	3.01	3.96
	Oct. 1941	3.46	.33	.81	.29	4.89	1.19	4.25	5.44
	Nov. 1940	2.02	.25	1.04	.34	3.65	1.65	4.21	5.86
Dyeing and finishing textiles.....	Nov. 1941	2.18	.34	.77	.18	3.47	.86	2.80	3.75
	Oct. 1941	3.01	.34	1.14	.28	4.77	1.36	3.68	5.04
	Nov. 1940	1.65	.25	1.10	.17	3.17	.87	4.23	5.10
Electrical machinery.....	Nov. 1941	1.20	.20	1.00	.39	2.79	.34	2.75	3.09
	Oct. 1941	1.64	.28	1.02	.59	3.53	.39	3.68	4.07
	Nov. 1940	.80	.18	.74	.35	2.07	.73	5.41	6.14
Engines, turbines, and water wheels. <sup>3</sup> .....	Nov. 1941	1.04	.26	.17	.23	1.70	.45	4.18	4.63
	Oct. 1941	1.61	.38	.46	.28	2.73	.74	5.12	5.86
	Nov. 1940	1.31	.19	.10	.02	1.61	.26	5.44	5.70
Foundries and machine shops.....	Nov. 1941	1.64	.37	.96	.27	3.24	.44	3.25	3.69
	Oct. 1941	2.33	.44	1.42	.31	4.50	.50	4.46	4.96
	Nov. 1940	1.05	.27	.85	.16	2.33	.61	4.66	5.27
Furniture.....	Nov. 1941	2.64	.43	1.93	.33	5.33	.83	4.09	4.92
	Oct. 1941	3.35	.51	1.35	.38	5.59	.90	5.22	6.12
	Nov. 1940	1.27	.23	2.40	.14	4.04	.71	3.17	3.88
Glass.....	Nov. 1941	1.37	.19	2.16	.31	4.03	.77	2.35	3.12
	Oct. 1941	1.63	.26	1.48	.61	3.98	1.81	4.19	6.00
	Nov. 1940	.45	.08	1.75	.21	2.49	.79	3.35	4.14
Hardware.....	Nov. 1941	2.57	.29	.92	.26	4.04	.80	3.67	4.47
	Oct. 1941	3.50	.38	1.18	.34	5.40	1.29	4.07	5.36
	Nov. 1940	1.96	.17	.24	.19	2.56	.23	7.74	7.97
Iron and steel.....	Nov. 1941	1.09	.10	.41	.34	1.94	.36	1.38	1.74
	Oct. 1941	1.36	.15	.51	.47	2.49	.37	1.60	1.87
	Nov. 1940	.63	.09	.21	.20	1.13	.61	2.22	2.83
Knit goods.....	Nov. 1941	1.60	.21	1.38	.12	3.40	.79	2.31	3.10
	Oct. 1941	2.17	.27	1.74	.13	4.31	1.33	2.53	3.86
	Nov. 1940	1.06	.15	1.40	.06	2.67	1.26	2.50	3.76
Machine tools.....	Nov. 1941	1.59	.43	.10	.19	2.31	.07	3.81	3.88
	Oct. 1941	1.93	.44	.18	.15	2.70	.20	4.15	4.35
	Nov. 1940	1.47	.34	.10	.17	2.08	.52	3.82	4.34
Men's clothing.....	Nov. 1941	1.40	.09	2.47	.10	4.06	1.31	1.64	2.95
	Oct. 1941	1.49	.16	1.96	.10	3.71	1.07	2.36	3.43
	Nov. 1940	1.00	.17	4.33	.09	5.59	2.45	1.85	4.30
Paints and varnishes.....	Nov. 1941	1.23	.18	.90	.28	2.59	.21	1.85	2.06
	Oct. 1941	1.78	.29	1.17	.44	3.68	.12	2.59	2.71
	Nov. 1940	.77	.10	.92	.08	1.87	.29	1.64	1.93
Paper and pulp.....	Nov. 1941	1.52	.26	.79	.22	2.79	.71	2.21	2.92
	Oct. 1941	1.68	.27	1.07	.28	3.30	.48	3.20	3.68
	Nov. 1940	.68	.10	1.08	.18	2.04	.54	1.28	1.82
Petroleum refining.....	Nov. 1941	.35	.07	.90	.27	1.59	.47	1.49	1.96
	Oct. 1941	.53	.03	1.05	.42	2.03	.35	1.56	1.91
	Nov. 1940	.31	.06	1.90	.23	2.50	.53	.28	.81
Planing mills.....	Nov. 1941	2.27	.46	2.10	.24	5.07	.43	2.82	3.25
	Oct. 1941	3.54	.47	1.49	.40	5.90	1.33	3.94	5.27
	Nov. 1940	1.48	.31	2.01	.11	3.91	1.34	3.13	4.47

See footnotes at end of table.

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TABLE 2.—*Monthly Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Employees) in 42 Manufacturing Industries*<sup>1</sup>—Continued

Industry	Date	Separation rates					Accession rates		
		Quit <sup>2</sup>	Discharge	Lay-off	Mis-cel-lane-ous separation <sup>3</sup>	Total separation	Re-hir-ing	New hiring	Total accession
Printing: Book and job	Nov. 1941	1.50	0.20	2.21	0.11	4.02	1.46	3.52	4.98
	Oct. 1941	1.89	.29	2.54	.19	4.91	1.51	4.83	6.34
	Nov. 1940	.76	.11	2.40	.23	3.50	2.17	2.81	4.98
Printing: Newspapers and periodicals	Nov. 1941	.66	.21	1.31	.21	2.39	.71	1.02	1.73
	Oct. 1941	.80	.14	1.23	.21	2.38	.92	1.24	2.16
	Nov. 1940	.27	.06	1.99	.16	2.48	1.20	1.56	2.76
Radios and phonographs	Nov. 1941	2.81	.43	2.25	.28	5.77	.69	2.86	3.55
	Oct. 1941	2.94	.28	.86	.16	4.24	.69	3.95	4.64
	Nov. 1940	1.99	.16	6.03	.23	8.41	1.23	2.92	4.15
Rayon and allied products	Nov. 1941	.56	.18	1.39	.26	2.39	.10	1.26	1.36
	Oct. 1941	.88	.19	1.40	.39	2.86	.53	1.92	2.45
	Nov. 1940	.68	.15	.49	.11	1.43	.35	1.69	2.04
Rubber boots and shoes	Nov. 1941	2.22	.17	.67	.56	3.62	.90	2.83	3.73
	Oct. 1941	2.47	.19	.11	.51	3.28	1.73	5.16	6.89
	Nov. 1940	1.42	.21	.50	.13	2.26	.68	8.46	9.14
Rubber tires	Nov. 1941	1.04	.06	.39	.46	1.95	.48	1.80	2.28
	Oct. 1941	1.45	.09	1.23	.48	3.25	.79	1.39	2.18
	Nov. 1940	.52	.06	.51	.14	1.23	1.47	2.74	4.21
Sawmills	Nov. 1941	2.39	.50	3.69	.28	6.86	1.10	2.63	3.73
	Oct. 1941	3.80	.34	2.44	.38	6.96	1.10	4.02	5.12
	Nov. 1940	1.23	.17	3.74	.16	5.30	1.59	2.85	4.44
Shipbuilding	Nov. 1941	2.39	.46	1.85	.32	5.02	1.55	10.85	12.40
	Oct. 1941	2.70	.54	2.38	.42	6.04	1.93	12.67	14.60
	Nov. 1940	1.32	.25	3.37	.33	5.27	2.62	5.18	7.80
Silk and rayon goods	Nov. 1941	1.96	.23	2.09	.20	4.48	1.21	2.79	4.00
	Oct. 1941	3.22	.23	1.89	.34	5.68	1.75	2.80	4.55
	Nov. 1940	1.75	.10	2.75	.08	4.68	1.97	2.74	4.71
Slaughtering and meat packing	Nov. 1941	1.60	.28	4.54	.49	6.91	4.93	7.18	12.11
	Oct. 1941	1.86	.28	6.33	.56	9.04	4.39	6.00	10.39
	Nov. 1940	.94	.16	3.80	.26	5.16	4.89	8.02	12.91
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus	Nov. 1941	1.60	.25	.99	.30	3.14	.48	1.79	2.27
	Oct. 1941	2.41	.29	.70	.40	3.80	.30	3.25	3.55
	Nov. 1940	1.69	.24	1.20	.14	3.27	.07	4.05	4.12
Structural and ornamental metal work	Nov. 1941	1.29	.18	1.03	.21	2.71	.53	2.19	2.72
	Oct. 1941	1.90	.21	1.06	.48	3.65	.34	2.33	2.67
	Nov. 1940	1.24	.13	2.87	.14	4.38	1.96	7.12	9.08
Tools (not including edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	Nov. 1941	1.88	.31	.94	.22	3.35	.18	3.21	3.39
	Oct. 1941	2.26	.13	.39	.26	3.04	.22	3.93	4.15
	Nov. 1940	1.11	.18	1.31	.17	2.77	.44	4.74	5.18
Woolen and worsted goods	Nov. 1941	2.06	.24	.83	.13	3.26	.70	2.96	3.66
	Oct. 1941	2.59	.29	.94	.22	4.04	1.07	3.43	4.50
	Nov. 1940	2.64	.11	2.48	.09	5.32	1.52	5.50	7.02

<sup>1</sup> No individual industry data shown unless reports cover at least 25 percent of industrial employment.

<sup>2</sup> Beginning with September 1940, workers leaving to enter the Army or Navy are included in "miscellaneous separations."

<sup>3</sup> Including aero-engines.

## *Building Operations*

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### **SUMMARY OF BUILDING CONSTRUCTION IN PRINCIPAL CITIES, DECEMBER 1941<sup>1</sup>**

GAINS made in the early part of the year pushed 1941 building-permit valuations 5 percent ahead of those for 1940. However, December was the third consecutive month of 1941 in which permit valuations dropped below the total for the corresponding month of 1940. The major part of the 35-percent decrease in permit valuations between December 1940 and 1941 was in new nonresidential construction, which dropped 47 percent. Valuations for new residential construction decreased 26 percent, but those for additions, alterations, and repairs rose 8 percent. In making these comparisons it should be pointed out that permit valuations for nonresidential construction in December 1940 were only slightly below those in October 1940, which was the highest month since the summer of 1930.

Permit valuations for December 1941 were a little higher than those for the previous month because of a 41-percent increase in new nonresidential construction. This gain was almost entirely offset, however, by decreases of 22 percent in new residential construction and of 2 percent in additions, alterations, and repairs.

#### *Comparison of December 1941 With November 1941 and December 1940*

The volume of building construction in 2,006 identical cities with populations of 1,000 and over which reported to the Bureau of Labor Statistics in December 1941, November 1941, and December 1940 is summarized in table 1.

The number of new dwelling units for which permits were issued and the permit valuation of such new housekeeping residential construction in the 2,006 cities in December 1941 are presented in table 2. Percentage changes between December 1941 and November 1941 and December 1940 are also shown.

<sup>1</sup> More detailed information by geographic divisions and individual cities is contained in a separate pamphlet entitled, "Building Construction, December 1941," copies of which will be furnished upon request.

TABLE 1.—Summary of Building Construction for Which Permits Were Issued in 2,006 Identical Cities, December 1941

Class of construction	Number of buildings			Permit valuation		
	December 1941	Percentage change from—		December 1941	Percentage change from—	
		Novem- ber 1941	Decem- ber 1940		Novem- ber 1941	Decem- ber 1940
All construction.....	43,978	-23.8	-8.6	\$164,275,614	+0.5	-34.5
New residential.....	13,804	-24.1	-31.0	68,690,124	-22.5	-25.8
New nonresidential.....	7,366	-28.4	-2.6	72,924,649	+41.2	-46.9
Additions, alterations, and repairs.....	22,808	-21.9	+10.9	22,651,841	-2.4	+8.3

TABLE 2.—Number and Permit Valuation of New Dwelling Units in 2,006 Identical Cities, December 1941, by Source of Funds and Type of Dwelling

Source of funds and type of dwelling	Number of dwelling units			Permit valuation		
	December 1941	Percentage change from—		December 1941	Percentage change from—	
		Novem- ber 1941	Decem- ber 1940		Novem- ber 1941	Decem- ber 1940
All dwellings.....	17,061	-29.6	-34.4	\$63,377,074	-28.1	-31.5
Privately financed.....	14,809	-29.9	-21.9	55,260,642	-28.6	-22.5
1-family.....	12,352	-17.3	-8.4	49,125,341	-16.8	-11.9
2-family <sup>1</sup> .....	1,088	-4.1	+.2	2,699,768	-11.8	-4.8
Multifamily <sup>2</sup> .....	1,369	-73.0	-68.8	3,435,533	-77.6	-73.0
Publicly financed.....	2,252	-27.5	-08.1	8,116,432	-24.3	-61.6

<sup>1</sup> Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.

<sup>2</sup> Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

### Comparison of 1940 and 1941

Total permit valuations reported in 1940 and in 1941 are compared in table 3.

TABLE 3.—Permit Valuation of Building Construction, by Class of Construction, 1940 and 1941<sup>1</sup>

Class of construction	Permit valuation		Percentage change
	1941	1940	
All construction.....	\$2,688,490,507	\$2,555,909,527	+5.2
New residential.....	1,440,861,390	1,275,824,536	+12.9
New nonresidential.....	882,256,475	941,389,069	-6.3
Additions, alterations, and repairs.....	365,372,642	338,695,892	+7.9

<sup>1</sup> Based on reports from cities with a population of 1,000 and over, the cities being identical for any given month of both years.

The number and permit valuation of new dwelling units for which permits were issued in 1941 are compared with similar data for 1940 in table 4.

**TABLE 4.—Number and Permit Valuation of New Dwelling Units, 1940 and 1941, by Source of Funds and Type of Dwelling<sup>1</sup>**

Source of funds and type of dwelling	Number of dwelling units			Permit valuation		
	1941	1940	Percent- age change	1941	1940	Percent- age change
All dwellings .....	380,914	350,268	+8.7	\$1,421,396,644	\$1,256,084,949	+13.2
Privately financed .....	320,876	290,899	+10.3	1,219,263,710	1,073,449,839	+13.6
1-family .....	248,081	222,706	+11.4	1,016,348,961	881,665,946	+15.3
2-family <sup>2</sup> .....	21,405	18,036	+18.7	56,351,596	45,684,996	+23.3
Multifamily <sup>3</sup> .....	51,390	50,157	+2.5	146,563,153	146,008,897	+.3
Publicly financed .....	60,038	59,369	+1.1	202,132,934	182,635,110	+10.7

<sup>1</sup> Based on reports from cities with a population of 1,000 and over, the cities being identical for any given month of both years.

<sup>2</sup> Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.

<sup>3</sup> Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

### *Construction from Public Funds, December 1941*

The value of contracts awarded and force-account work started during December 1941, November 1941, and December 1940 on all construction projects financed wholly or partially from Federal funds is shown in table 5. This table includes other types of construction as well as building construction, both inside and outside the 2,006 reporting cities.

**TABLE 5.—Value of Contracts Awarded and Force-Account Work Started on Construction Projects Financed From Federal Funds, November and December 1941, and December 1940<sup>1</sup>**

Federal agency	Contracts awarded and force-account work started		
	December 1941	November 1941 <sup>2</sup>	December 1940 <sup>3</sup>
	\$559,213,763	\$178,027,737	\$660,952,702
Total .....			
Public Works Administration:			
Federal .....	0	0	4,907
Non-Federal:			
N. I. R. A. ....	0	0	9,839
E. R. A. A. ....	0	0	4,864
P. W. A. A., 1938 .....	0	0	2,285,841
Federal agency projects under the WPA .....	0	247,616	149,136
Regular Federal appropriations .....	551,346,729	168,492,065	646,522,139
United States Housing Authority .....	7,867,034	9,288,056	11,975,796

<sup>1</sup> Preliminary, subject to revision.

<sup>2</sup> Revised.

The value of all contracts awarded for public buildings and highway construction to be financed wholly from State funds, as reported by the State governments for December 1941, November 1941, and December 1940, was as follows:

	Public buildings	Highway construction
December 1941 .....	\$786,646	\$10,513,287
November 1941 .....	1,712,982	8,788,661
December 1940 .....	3,754,073	16,649,290

### Coverage of Building-Permit Statistics

Building-permit data are collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics directly from local building officials, except in the States of Illinois, Massachusetts, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, and Pennsylvania, where State departments of labor collect and forward the data to the Bureau. Reports are obtained each month from more than 2,000 places having a population of 1,000 or more in 1940, from which are selected those for cities which also reported in the preceding month and in the corresponding month of the previous year. The resulting tabulations of identical cities cover practically all cities with a population of 50,000 or more; the completeness of the coverage of cities in the remaining population groups decreases with the size of city.

In addition, the Bureau receives notifications of the value of construction contracts awarded by Federal and State Governments. Federal and State building construction in the 2,006 reporting cities totaled \$35,651,000 in December 1941, as contrasted with \$32,114,000 in the previous month and \$87,691,000 in December 1940.

The permit-valuation figures represent estimates of construction costs made by prospective builders when applying for permits to build, in the case of privately financed construction, and the value of contracts awarded, in the case of construction financed with Federal or State funds. No land costs are included. Only building construction within the corporate limits of the reporting cities is included in the tabulations.

## Retail Prices

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### RETAIL COSTS OF FOOD, DECEMBER 16, 1941

RETAIL prices of most foods continued to rise between November 18 and December 16, but the rise was moderate in comparison with earlier months. Large seasonal declines for pork, eggs, and oranges, and lower prices of butter reduced the total cost of the family food bill sufficiently to offset these advances, and the Bureau of Labor Statistics index of retail food costs remained at 113.1 percent of the 1935-39 average. Food costs in mid-December were 16 percent higher than a year earlier.

By the end of December, preliminary reports indicated additional moderate advances in prices of sugar, flour, navy beans, beef, and coffee, with further seasonal price declines for oranges and eggs, and lower butter prices.

Retail prices of oranges declined 22 percent between mid-November and mid-December. Both California navel and Florida oranges were late in arriving on the market, thus creating a scarcity in mid-November. By mid-December supplies were available in much greater volume, with a consequent sharp price decline. Supplies of pork and eggs were also marketed in increasingly large quantities, and the decline of butter prices reflected an unusually large supply. The Department of Agriculture reports that supplies of butter on hand as of January 1 were the largest that food dealers have ever reported on that date.

Sugar prices, generally very sensitive to war conditions, advanced moderately. After the attack on Pearl Harbor there were some scattered reports of hoarding and runs on grocery stores, similar to those of September 1939. However, this situation was not general up to January 1, and where it did occur, grocers voluntarily limited purchases to 2, 5, or 10 pounds per customer, particularly after the order of December 13, 1941, which froze sugar stocks in the United States, and limited the supplies available to retailers.

Advances in prices of milk and bread have been made during the current year in most of the cities covered by the Bureau of Labor Statistics surveys. Between mid-November and mid-December, price increases for milk were reported in 7 cities. For bread, moderate declines occurred in 5 cities and slight advances in 7.

Lard prices were higher in most cities on December 16 than on November 18, continuing the rapid rise which has prevailed during most of the year. The upward trend in prices also continued for canned tomatoes, navy beans, and cheese, as these commodities, together with lard, are being exported in considerable quantities.

As compared with December 17, 1940, prices of some of the more important fresh vegetables, such as potatoes, cabbage, and onions, were more than 40 percent higher, reflecting somewhat smaller supplies and greater demand. Lard prices were up 65 percent above the relatively low level of the previous year, partly because of Government purchases under the Lend-Lease Act, and prices of shortening in cartons were 58 percent higher. Advances amounting to 30 to 40 percent over a year ago were reported for canned peaches, navy beans, and canned red salmon. Coffee prices were also up 30 percent, largely as a result of higher minimum price levels set under agreements with coffee-producing countries, as well as of higher shipping costs. For flour and rice, prices were 19 percent higher, and for bread, 10 percent higher. Prices of cereals and bakery products other than bread, flour, and rice, were only slightly higher than a year ago.

Indexes of retail costs of food by commodity groups are presented in table 1 for October, November, and December 1941, November 1940, August 1939 (immediately before the outbreak of the war in Europe), and December 1929. The accompanying chart shows the trend in the costs of all foods (1935-39=100), and each major commodity group for the period from January 1929 to December 1941, inclusive.

TABLE 1.—*Indexes of Retail Costs of Food in 51 Large Cities Combined,<sup>1</sup> December, November, and October 1941, December 1940, August 1939, and December 1929*  
[1935-39=100]

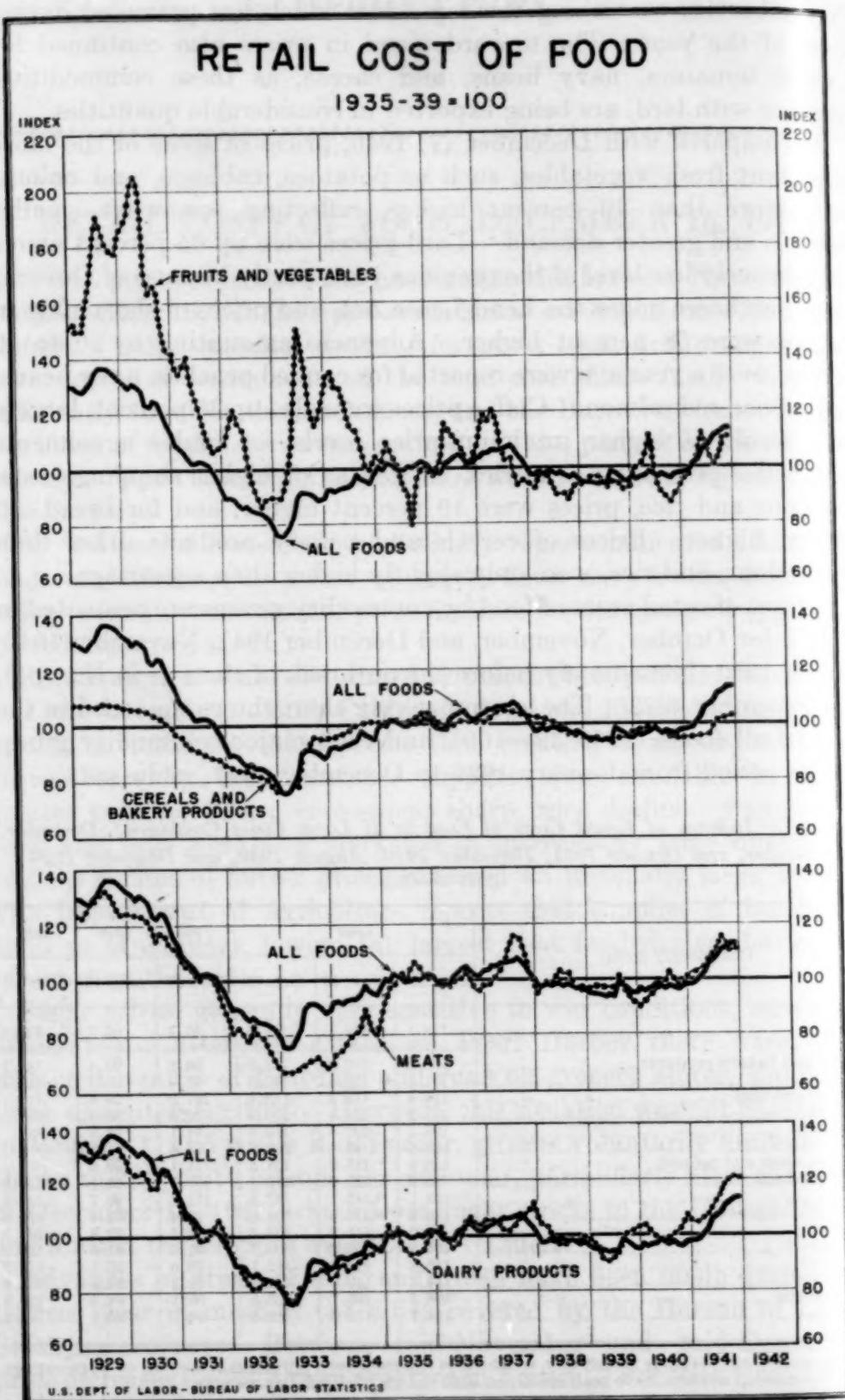
Commodity group	1941			1940	1939	1929
	Dec. 16 <sup>2</sup>	Nov. 18	Oct. 14	Dec. 17	Aug. 15	Dec. 15
All foods.....	113.1	113.1	111.6	97.3	93.5	133.8
Cereals and bakery products.....	102.5	102.2	102.2	94.8	93.4	107.1
Meats.....	111.1	110.4	112.9	97.4	95.7	123.4
Beef and veal.....	114.4	112.4	115.1	107.0	99.6	(3)
Pork.....	103.2	105.4	109.3	80.8	88.0	(3)
Lamb.....	108.1	107.4	110.8	94.1	98.8	(3)
Chickens.....	100.5	99.4	101.6	93.4	94.6	(3)
Fish, fresh and canned.....	138.9	135.9	131.5	114.1	99.6	(3)
Dairy products.....	120.6	120.9	119.9	107.4	93.1	127.9
Eggs.....	138.1	146.1	137.3	111.7	90.7	182.9
Fruits and vegetables.....	110.5	110.3	104.0	90.4	92.4	178.0
Fresh.....	111.0	111.2	103.5	89.5	92.8	184.3
Canned.....	106.3	105.2	103.7	91.3	91.6	121.6
Dried.....	118.3	116.2	112.7	99.6	90.3	176.2
Beverages.....	114.1	112.9	111.0	90.3	94.9	157.8
Fats and oils.....	108.5	106.7	105.6	80.1	84.5	123.8
Sugar.....	114.4	112.9	112.5	94.7	95.6	115.2

<sup>1</sup> Aggregate costs of 54 foods in each city, weighted to represent total purchases of families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers, have been combined with the use of population weights.

<sup>2</sup> Preliminary.

<sup>3</sup> Not available.

<sup>4</sup> Revised.



Among the 54 foods included in the index, prices of 36 were higher in December 1941 than in November; prices of 10 were lower, and for 8 there was no change. Average prices of 52 foods were higher on December 16 than they were a year previous, one was lower, and for one there was no change.

Average prices of 65 foods in 51 cities combined are shown in table 2, for December and November 1941 and December 1940.

TABLE 2.—*Average Retail Prices of 65 Foods in 51 Large Cities Combined, December and November 1941 and December 1940*

Article	1941		1940
	Dec. 16 <sup>1</sup>	Nov. 18	Dec. 17
<b>Cereals and bakery products:</b>			
Cereals:			
Flour, wheat	10 pounds	49.2	48.5
Macaroni	pound	14.0	14.0
Wheat cereal <sup>2</sup>	28-oz. pkg	23.9	23.8
Corn flakes	8-oz. pkg	7.1	7.1
Corn meal	pound	4.4	4.4
Rice <sup>2</sup>	do	9.4	9.1
Rolled oats <sup>2</sup>	do	7.6	7.5
Bakery products:			
Bread, white	do	8.6	8.6
Bread, whole-wheat	do	9.5	9.5
Bread, rye	do	9.6	9.6
Vanilla cookies	do	25.8	25.7
Soda crackers	do	15.3	15.2
Meats:			
Beef:			
Round steak	do	40.1	39.3
Rib roast	do	31.8	31.1
Chuck roast	do	27.0	26.5
Veal:			
Cutlets	do	48.9	49.0
Pork:			
Chops	do	34.5	36.0
Bacon, sliced	do	36.0	36.3
Ham, sliced <sup>2</sup>	do	52.4	52.4
Ham, whole	do	31.9	32.0
Salt pork	do	20.2	20.0
Lamb:			
Leg	do	30.5	30.5
Rib chops	do	38.2	37.8
Poultry:			
Roasting chickens	do	32.1	31.7
Fish:			
Fresh, frozen	do	(4)	(4)
Salmon, pink	16-oz. can	20.0	20.0
Salmon, red <sup>2</sup>	do	36.9	36.3
Dairy products:			
Butter	pound	42.3	43.3
Cheese	do	34.5	34.2
Milk, fresh (delivered)	quart	14.8	14.7
Milk, fresh (store)	do	13.7	13.6
Milk, fresh (delivered and store) <sup>2</sup>	do	14.4	14.3
Milk, evaporated	14½-oz. can	8.8	8.7
Eggs	dozen	49.0	51.9
Fruits and vegetables:			
Fresh:			
Apples	pound	5.6	5.3
Bananas	do	7.5	8.0
Oranges	dozen	30.0	38.3
Grapefruit <sup>2</sup>	each	5.0	5.5
Beans, green	pound	11.3	15.4
Cabbage	do	4.0	3.5
Carrots	bunch	7.2	6.7
Lettuce	head	12.3	8.7
Onions	pound	5.1	4.6
Potatoes	15 pounds	40.0	39.1
Spinach	pound	7.8	7.9
Sweetpotatoes	do	4.4	4.2

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Average Retail Prices of 65 Foods in 51 Large Cities Combined, December and November 1941 and December 1940—Continued*

Article	1941		1940
	Dec. 16 <sup>1</sup>	Nov. 18	Dec. 17
<b>Fruits and vegetables—Continued.</b>			
Canned:			
Peaches	No. 2½ can	Cents	Cents
Pineapple	do	21.6	21.4
Grapefruit-juice <sup>2</sup>	No. 2 can	22.4	22.2
Beans, green <sup>3</sup>	do	9.6	9.5
Corn	do	12.3	11.9
Peas	do	12.2	12.0
Tomatoes	do	14.3	14.2
Dried:			
Prunes	pound	10.7	10.5
Navy beans	do	8.5	8.3
Beverages:			
Coffee	do	26.9	26.6
Tea	½ pound	19.7	19.5
Cocoa <sup>4</sup>	8-oz. can	9.2	9.1
Fats and oils:			
Lard	pound	15.2	14.8
Shortening, other than lard:			
In cartons	do	17.9	17.7
In other containers	do	23.7	23.3
Salad dressing	pint	23.8	23.7
Oleomargarine	pound	19.7	19.5
Peanut butter	do	20.0	19.6
Sugar and sweets:			
Sugar	10 pounds	61.4	60.6
Corn syrup <sup>5</sup>	24-oz. can	14.1	14.1
Molasses <sup>6</sup>	18-oz. can	13.6	13.5

<sup>1</sup> Preliminary.<sup>2</sup> Not included in index.<sup>3</sup> Revised.<sup>4</sup> Composite prices not computed.<sup>5</sup> Priced first time Oct. 14, 1941.

### Details by Regions and Cities

Retail food costs advanced in 28 cities, declined in 22, and remained unchanged in 1, between November 18 and December 16. The largest increases were reported for Los Angeles (2.8 percent), Scranton (2.1 percent), Washington, D. C. (1.8 percent), and Baltimore (1.6 percent). Sharp advances in prices of fresh vegetables and greater than average increases for beef were responsible for these higher costs. The largest decreases were for Providence (1.7 percent), Jacksonville (1.6 percent), Chicago and Cincinnati (1.4 percent). The drop in prices of fresh fruits and vegetables combined with the large seasonal decline for pork was responsible for the decreases.

Indexes of food costs by cities are presented in table 3 for December and November 1941 and December 1940.

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TABLE 3.—*Indexes of the Average Retail Cost of All Foods, by Cities,<sup>1</sup> December and November 1941 and December 1940*

[1935-39=100]

Region and city	1941		1940	Region and city	1941		1940
	Dec. 16 <sup>2</sup>	Nov. 18	Dec. 17		Dec. 16 <sup>2</sup>	Nov. 18	Dec. 17
	113.1	113.1	97.3	117.5	117.0	99.3	
United States				St. Louis	117.5	117.0	99.3
New England:				St. Paul	111.5	111.4	99.8
Boston	110.1	111.5	94.7	South Atlantic:			
Bridgeport	111.9	111.5	96.3	Atlanta	111.1	111.1	95.2
Fall River	110.5	111.7	97.1	Baltimore	116.1	114.3	96.8
Manchester	111.7	112.8	97.2	Charleston, S. C.	114.7	113.1	96.3
New Haven	111.1	110.5	95.4	Jacksonville	117.3	119.2	99.0
Portland, Maine	110.7	111.2	96.0	Norfolk <sup>3</sup>	117.6	116.7	97.1
Providence	110.2	112.1	96.7	Richmond	112.6	111.8	94.5
Middle Atlantic:				Savannah	118.1	118.6	100.2
Buffalo	115.4	115.2	98.9	Washington, D. C.	113.4	111.4	96.6
Newark	112.1	111.9	98.2	East South Central:			
New York	112.5	113.1	98.6	Birmingham	112.0	112.6	96.8
Philadelphia	109.8	108.7	94.8	Louisville	113.7	114.1	95.9
Pittsburgh	113.7	112.9	97.8	Memphis	113.1	112.3	95.6
Rochester	112.2	112.1	100.1	Mobile	120.7	120.2	97.3
Scranton	111.8	109.5	99.1	West South Central:			
East North Central:				Dallas	111.0	111.7	92.2
Chicago	113.2	114.8	97.2	Houston	117.9	118.6	102.1
Cincinnati	112.7	114.3	95.8	Little Rock	115.5	114.4	96.0
Cleveland	115.0	116.4	98.7	New Orleans	119.9	118.7	100.5
Columbus, Ohio	111.1	110.4	94.0	Mountain:			
Detroit	111.4	112.0	95.8	Butte	110.4	110.9	98.2
Indianapolis	115.2	114.9	98.8	Denver	111.9	113.2	95.9
Milwaukee	110.5	111.3	95.1	Salt Lake City	115.4	115.7	98.6
Peoria	116.7	116.1	99.3	Pacific:			
Springfield, Ill.	115.8	115.7	97.3	Los Angeles	118.6	115.4	99.9
West North Central:				Portland, Oreg.	121.3	121.7	100.7
Kansas City	109.7	109.6	92.9	San Francisco	115.4	114.4	97.9
Minneapolis	111.9	112.9	100.8	Seattle	120.6	118.9	100.2
Omaha	110.5	109.4	98.7				

<sup>1</sup> Aggregate costs of 54 foods in each city, weighted to represent total purchases of families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers, have been combined for the United States with the use of population weights. Primary use is for time-to-time comparisons rather than place-to-place comparisons.

<sup>2</sup> Preliminary.

<sup>3</sup> Includes Portsmouth and Newport News.

<sup>4</sup> Revised.

### Average Annual Indexes of Retail Food Costs, 1913 to 1941

In order to make it possible to compare current trends in retail food costs with trends for earlier years, including the World War I period, the Bureau has prepared average annual indexes of retail food costs for the years 1913 to 1940 inclusive. These yearly indexes and average monthly indexes for 1940 and 1941 are shown in table 4.

TABLE 4.—*Indexes of Retail Food Costs in 51 Large Cities Combined, by Years From 1913 to 1940, and by Months, January 1940 to December 1941, Inclusive*

[1935-39=100]

Year	All foods index	Year	All foods index	Year and month	All foods index	Year and month	All foods index
				<i>1940</i>		<i>1941</i>	
1913.	79.9	1927	132.3	January	94.8	January	97.8
1914.	81.8	1928	130.8	February	96.6	February	97.9
1915.	80.9	1929	132.5	March	95.6	March	98.4
1916.	90.8	1930	126.0	April	96.2	April	100.6
1917.	116.9	1931	103.9				
1918.	134.4	1932	86.5	May	97.0	May	102.1
1919.	149.8	1933	84.1	June	98.3	June	105.9
1920.	168.8	1934	93.7	July	97.4	July	106.7
1921.	128.3	1935	100.4	August	96.2	August	108.0
1922.	119.9	1936	101.3	September	97.2	September	110.7
1923.	124.0	1937	105.3	October	96.2	October	111.6
1924.	122.8	1938	97.8	November	95.9	November	113.1
1925.	132.9	1939	95.2	December	97.3	December	113.1
1926.	137.4	1940	96.6				



## ELECTRICITY PRICES,<sup>1</sup> DECEMBER 1941

RESIDENTIAL rates for electricity are secured quarterly in March, June, September, and December from 51 cities. These rates are used for computing monthly bills in each city for quantities of electricity which have been selected as representative of average use throughout the country for each of three combinations of services.

Reports published quarterly for March, June, and September show only the price changes which occurred during the preceding 3 months. The December report presents prices effective December 15 in each of the 51 cities, and a record of changes for the year.

### Prices on December 15, 1941

Electricity prices in 1941 again moved downward, continuing the long-time trend of more than 20 years. Rates reductions occurred in only 6 of the 51 cities in 1941, the smallest number reported in any year since 1924. Decreases in average prices in December compared with a year ago were 1.2 percent for the use of 25 kilowatt-hours and 1.4 percent for 100 kilowatt-hours. Indexes in December for 25 kilowatt-hours and 100 kilowatt-hours were 72.0 percent and 63.9 percent, respectively, of the average for the 3-year period 1923-25.

Indexes of the cost of 25 kilowatt-hours and 100 kilowatt-hours per month for the 51 cities combined are shown in table 5 for December of specified years from 1923 through 1937 and for quarterly periods from 1938 through 1941.

<sup>1</sup> Average prices of electricity for 25, 40, and 100 kilowatt-hours for 1923 through 1938 are shown in Bulletin No. 664.

TABLE 5.—*Indexes of Retail Prices of Electricity for 51 Cities Combined, December of Specified Years 1923–37, and March, June, September, and December 1938 to 1941*

[1923–25=100]

Date	Lighting and small appliances 25 kwh	Lighting appliances and refrig- erator 100 kwh	Date	Lighting and small appliances 25 kwh	Lighting appliances and refrig- erator 100 kwh
1923: December	101.1	101.2	1939: March	74.6	66.3
1925: December	97.3	97.1	June	74.4	66.1
1927: December	94.0	91.5	September	74.1	65.9
1929: December	89.7	84.4	December	73.7	65.6
1931: December	88.3	77.0	1940: March	73.6	65.7
1933: December	84.9	75.1	June	73.2	65.3
1935: December	80.7	70.2	September	73.0	65.0
1937: December	76.0	67.4	December	72.9	64.8
1938: March	75.5	67.3	1941: March	72.9	64.7
June	75.4	67.1	June	72.9	64.7
September	75.1	66.8	September	72.4	64.2
December	74.8	66.6	December <sup>1</sup>	72.0	63.9

<sup>1</sup> Indexes are preliminary.

### Details by Cities

Indexes of price changes for each of 51 cities for the use of 25 kilowatt-hours and 100 kilowatt-hours for March, June, September, and December 1941, and December 1940, and monthly bills and average prices per kilowatt-hour for amounts of electricity representative of the requirements of 3 residential services on December 15, 1941, are given in the pamphlet, "Retail Prices," for December 1941.

### Price Changes Between December 1940 and December 1941

Residential rates for electricity remained unchanged in 1941 in all except 6 of the 51 reporting cities. Lower rates became effective during the year in the following cities: Philadelphia, Detroit, Washington, D. C., Houston, Butte, Denver.

The greatest reduction was in Denver, where monthly bills declined 18.1 percent for 250 kilowatt-hours and 13.6 percent for 100 kilowatt-hours. The smallest reduction was in Washington, D. C.—0.6 percent for 250 kilowatt-hours and 1.9 percent for 100 kilowatt-hours. In both cities there was no change in monthly bills for the use of 25 kilowatt-hours. Lower rates affecting all 3 services in Philadelphia, Detroit, Houston, and Butte resulted in decreases ranging between 1.3 percent for 250 kilowatt-hours in Detroit and 10.7 percent for 25 kilowatt-hours in Butte.

Changes in cost of electricity due to adjustments other than rate changes occurred in Bridgeport, New Haven, and New York City. Under a temporary amendment to the rates for Bridgeport and New Haven, reductions of 40 percent in bills rendered in May, and 25 percent in December, provided an average decrease of about 5.4 percent for the year. In New York City, prices of electricity were affected by two conditions—(1) slight increases were effective under

the fuel clause which provides for additions or deductions from established rates per kilowatt-hour when prices of coal advance or decline beyond specified limits; (2) the city sales tax, which amounted to 3 percent early in the year, was reduced to 2 percent in July and to 1 percent in November. As a result of these conditions, costs for electricity were about 1.5 percent lower in December 1941 than in December 1940.

Net monthly bills, average prices per kilowatt-hour, and percentage change between December 15, 1940, and December 15, 1941, are shown in the pamphlet, "Retail Prices," for December 1941.



### GAS PRICES,<sup>2</sup> DECEMBER 1941

**RESIDENTIAL** rates for gas are secured quarterly in March, June, September, and December from 50 cities. Since December 1934, these rates have been used for computing monthly bills for each city for quantities of gas which approximate the average residential consumption requirements per month for each of four combinations of services. In order to put the prices upon a comparable basis, it was necessary to convert the normal consumption requirements used for computing monthly bills into an equivalent heating value expressed in therms (1 therm=100,000 B. t. u.).

Reports published quarterly for March, June, and September show only the changes by cities for the preceding 3 months. The December report presents prices effective December 15 in each of the 50 cities, and a record of changes for the year.

#### *Prices by Kinds of Gas on December 15, 1941*

The composite indexes (1923-25=100) covering costs of the kind of gas sold in each of 50 cities showed decreases between December 1940 and December 1941 of 0.7 percent for 10.6 therms and 0.9 percent for 30.6 therms. Separate weighted indexes for manufactured, natural, and a mixture of manufactured and natural gas have been computed from prices for cities using each of the three kinds. These indexes show the following percentage changes for the year.

	10.6 therms	30.6 therms
Manufactured gas (24 cities)-----	-0.9	-0.9
Natural gas (19 cities)-----	-1.3	-2.3
Mixed manufactured and natural gas (7 cities)-----	-0.1	-0.1

The weighted indexes for manufactured gas reflect the decrease in New York, due to a reduction in the city sales tax, and the rate in-

<sup>2</sup> Average prices of gas for 10.6 therms and 30.6 therms for 1923 through June 1936 are shown in Bulletin No. 628.

creases in Manchester and Seattle. The decline in the index was due to the greater weight given to changes in New York City than to changes in smaller communities.

Table 6 presents composite indexes for each of the 2 services for all kinds of gas, 50 cities combined, and separate indexes for manufactured, natural, and mixed manufactured and natural gas for December of specified years from 1923 through 1937, and for quarterly periods from 1938 through 1941.

### Details by Cities

Indexes of price changes for each of the 50 cities for the use of 10.6 therms and 30.6 therms for March, June, September, and December 1941, and December 1940, and net monthly bills and average prices per thousand cubic feet and per therm for each of 4 services, based on rates effective December 15, 1941, are shown in the pamphlet, "Retail Prices," for December 1941.

TABLE 6.—*Indexes of Retail Prices of Gas, December of Specified Years, 1923–37, and March, June, September, and December 1938, 1939, 1940, and 1941*

[1923–25=100]

Date	10.6 therms, range				30.6 therms, range and automatic water heater			
	All gas, 50 cities	Manufactured, 1923, 40 cities; 1941, 24 cities	Natural, 1923, 7 cities; 1941, 19 cities	Mixed 1923, 3 cities; 1941, 7 cities	All gas, 50 cities	Manufactured, 1923, 40 cities; 1941, 24 cities	Natural, 1923, 7 cities; 1941, 19 cities	Mixed 1923, 3 cities; 1941, 7 cities
1923: December	99.5	99.5	99.3	99.4	99.5	99.6	98.5	99.4
1925: December	100.2	99.7	107.1	98.9	100.2	99.6	108.1	98.9
1927: December	100.1	99.6	109.3	101.0	99.3	99.0	108.0	101.0
1929: December	99.7	100.1	119.2	98.2	95.4	97.0	108.3	98.1
1931: December	98.3	100.0	119.2	99.3	91.1	94.2	108.3	98.8
1933: December	97.2	99.2	118.8	97.7	88.4	92.1	107.9	92.2
1935: December	97.2	100.0	114.1	98.3	86.8	90.4	104.0	92.5
1937: December	96.8	100.0	112.7	98.4	85.1	89.4	101.2	92.4
1938: March	98.6	100.2	112.7	107.8	85.8	89.5	100.9	96.0
June	98.8	100.7	112.3	107.8	83.4	85.8	100.5	96.0
September	98.8	100.7	112.3	107.8	83.4	85.8	100.5	96.0
December	98.8	100.7	112.3	107.6	86.0	90.0	100.5	95.8
1939: March	99.3	100.5	116.5	107.5	86.3	89.8	103.9	95.7
June	99.4	100.5	116.5	107.7	83.8	85.6	103.9	95.9
September	99.3	100.5	116.0	107.7	83.4	85.6	102.9	94.4
December	99.8	101.4	116.0	107.4	85.9	89.7	102.9	94.0
1940: March	99.9	101.6	116.0	107.4	85.7	89.4	103.3	94.0
June	98.2	101.6	115.6	98.6	82.3	84.8	103.1	90.9
September	98.3	101.6	116.1	98.4	82.3	84.8	103.6	90.6
December	98.0	101.6	114.9	98.2	84.5	88.7	102.3	90.3
1941: March	97.8	101.6	113.4	98.1	84.1	88.7	99.2	90.2
June	97.8	101.6	113.4	98.3	81.5	84.5	99.2	90.4
September	97.5	101.1	113.4	98.3	81.3	84.1	99.2	90.4
December <sup>1</sup>	97.3	100.7	113.4	98.1	83.7	87.9	99.9	90.2

<sup>1</sup> Preliminary.

***Price Changes Between December 1940 and December 1941***

Changes in the cost of gas to domestic consumers in 1941 were due to rate changes in 5 of the 50 cities and regular seasonal changes as provided in rate schedules for 2 cities, one of which also reported a reduction in the city tax. These cities are as follows:

**Rate changes:**

<i>Manufactured gas</i>	<i>Natural gas</i>	<i>Mixed manufactured and natural gas</i>
Manchester	Detroit	Minneapolis
Seattle	Los Angeles	

**Seasonal and tax changes:**

New York—lower rates for manufactured gas in summer months, and decreases in city tax.

Cincinnati—lower heating value of the mixed manufactured and natural gas served in summer months.

***Manufactured gas.***—Between December 1940 and December 1941 a rate increase of approximately 7 percent was shown in Seattle. In Manchester a new rate schedule replaced the two schedules formerly available to domestic customers (a general service rate and an optional rate for customers using gas for automatic water heating). The new rate increased the cost about 8.5 percent for the use of 10.6 therms, 30.6 therms, and 40.6 therms, and lowered the cost for 19.6 therms by about 3.5 percent. New York reported the usual substantial summer reductions in rates for the use of more than 3,000 cubic feet per month. The city tax in New York was reduced from 3 percent to 2 percent in July and to 1 percent in November.

***Natural gas.***—Lower rates in Los Angeles resulted in decreases of about 2 percent to domestic customers. Detroit reported two rate changes during the year. The first—a decrease in the "immediate" rate—provided reductions to about half of the customers by lowering the costs by 9.9 percent for 10.6 therms to 19.4 percent for 40.6 therms, while costs to those served under the "promotional" rate remained unchanged. Later the "Objective Rate Schedule," which included both the "immediate" and the "promotional" rates, was replaced by a single rate providing reductions of about 2 percent to customers formerly served under the "immediate" rate. For customers who had been served under the "promotional" rate, costs were increased from 4.4 to 8.4 percent for 19.6 and 40.6 therms.

***Mixed manufactured and natural gas.***—Lower rates in Minneapolis provided decreases of from 1 to 2 percent in monthly bills for specified amounts of gas. Cincinnati reported the usual summer increase due to a decrease in the heating value of the gas, but rates were unchanged.

Net monthly bills, average prices per thousand cubic feet and per therm, and percentages of change from December 1940 through December 1941 are shown in the pamphlet, "Retail Prices", for December 1941.

## *Wholesale Prices*

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### **WHOLESALE PRICES, DECEMBER AND YEAR 1941<sup>1</sup>**

COMMODITY prices in wholesale markets rose sharply during the second year of World War II. Except for a slight reaction in February, the Bureau of Labor Statistics comprehensive index of nearly 900 price series advanced steadily to a 12-year peak at the end of the year. From an average of 78.6 percent of the 1926 level for 1940, the all-commodity index rose more than 11 percent to 87.3 for 1941. Notwithstanding governmental action to control unwarranted increases, commodity prices in wholesale markets have exceeded the 1937 peak and are at about the level reached late in 1929.

Farm product prices recorded the greatest gain, nearly 22 percent, from 1940 to 1941. Livestock and poultry advanced more than 32 percent; grains, 13 percent; and cotton, 38 percent. Food prices increased 16 percent, largely because of sharp advances in prices for meats, dairy products, and certain imports such as coffee, cocoa, tea, and pepper. Textile product prices rose nearly 15 percent, mainly because of marked increases in prices for cotton goods, burlap, and for certain imported fibers such as hemp, sisal, and jute.

Building materials and chemicals and allied products were about 10 percent higher in 1941 than in 1940. Higher prices for lumber were largely responsible for the increase in the building materials index, while marked advances in prices for industrial fats and oils and for essential chemicals and drugs were primarily responsible for the increase in the chemicals and allied products group index. Prices for fuel and lighting materials, housefurnishing goods, and miscellaneous commodities advanced about 6 percent. Average prices for metals and metal products rose less than 4 percent as price ceilings on most primary metals and some scrap materials were established early in the year by the Office of Price Administration.

The index for raw material prices advanced 16 percent during the year, largely as a result of the sharp increases in prices for agricultural commodities. Fully manufactured and partially manufactured commodity prices were about 10 percent higher in 1941 than in 1940. Prices for nonagricultural commodities advanced more than 9 percent

<sup>1</sup> More detailed information on wholesale prices is given in the Wholesale Price pamphlet and will be furnished upon request.

during the year, while industrial commodity prices increased over 7 percent according to the indexes for the large groups of "all commodities other than farm products" and "all commodities other than farm products and foods."

Table 1 shows index numbers of wholesale prices by groups and subgroups of commodities for 1940 and 1941 and the percentage changes between the 2 years.

TABLE 1.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities, 1940 and 1941, and Percentage Changes From 1940 to 1941*

[1926 = 100]

Group and subgroup	Year 1941	Year 1940	Percent- age change	Group and subgroup	Year 1941	Year 1940	Percent- age change
All commodities.....	87.3	78.6	+11.1	Metals and metal prod- ucts—Continued.			
Farm products.....	82.4	67.7	+21.7	Motor vehicles.....	103.3	96.7	+6.8
Grains.....	76.9	68.0	+13.1	Nonferrous metals.....	84.4	81.3	+3.8
Livestock and poultry.....	91.6	69.2	+32.4	Plumbing and heating.....	84.8	80.4	+5.5
Other farm products.....	77.8	66.1	+17.7	Building materials.....	103.2	94.8	+8.9
Foods.....	82.7	71.3	+16.0	Brick and tile.....	93.7	90.5	+3.5
Dairy products.....	87.3	77.6	+12.5	Cement.....	92.0	90.8	+1.3
Cereal products.....	80.7	78.3	+3.1	Lumber.....	122.5	102.9	+19.0
Fruits and vegetables.....	67.5	63.1	+7.0	Paint and paint mate- rials.....	91.4	85.7	+6.7
Meats.....	90.4	73.3	+23.3	Plumbing and heating.....	84.8	80.4	+5.5
Other foods.....	78.9	63.5	+24.3	Structural steel.....	107.3	107.3	0
Hides and leather products.....	108.3	100.8	+7.4	Other building mate- rials.....	98.3	93.3	+5.4
Shoes.....	113.5	107.6	+5.5	Chemicals and allied prod- ucts.....	84.6	77.0	+9.9
Hides and skins.....	108.4	91.9	+18.0	Chemicals.....	87.2	85.1	+2.5
Leather.....	97.9	92.5	+5.8	Drugs and pharmaceu- ticals.....	105.1	88.9	+18.2
Other leather products.....	104.7	99.9	+4.8	Fertilizer materials.....	73.5	69.4	+5.9
Textile products.....	84.8	73.8	+14.9	Mixed fertilizers.....	76.0	73.8	+3.0
Clothing.....	92.6	85.2	+8.7	Oils and fats.....	77.6	44.3	+75.2
Cotton goods.....	94.2	71.4	+31.9	Housefurnishing goods.....	94.3	88.5	+6.6
Hosiery and underwear.....	63.1	62.3	+1.3	Furnishings.....	99.9	94.7	+5.5
Rayon.....	29.5	29.5	0	Furniture.....	88.4	81.8	+8.1
Silk.....	(1)	46.8	—	Miscellaneous.....	82.0	77.3	+6.1
Woolen and worsted goods.....	96.6	85.7	+12.7	Automobile tires and tubes.....	61.0	57.8	+5.5
Other textile products.....	90.7	74.5	+21.7	Cattle feed.....	101.2	87.8	+15.3
Fuel and lighting materials.....	76.2	71.7	+6.3	Paper and pulp.....	98.2	91.7	+7.1
Anthracite.....	82.7	78.9	+4.8	Rubber, crude.....	46.1	41.5	+11.1
Bituminous coal.....	104.3	97.6	+6.9	Other miscellaneous.....	87.8	84.1	+4.4
Coke.....	119.3	110.2	+8.3	Raw materials.....	83.5	71.9	+16.1
Electricity.....	(2)	74.5	—	Semimanufactured articles.....	86.9	79.1	+9.9
Gas.....	(2)	82.0	—	Manufactured products.....	89.1	81.6	+9.2
Petroleum and prod- ucts.....	57.0	50.0	+14.0	All commodities other than farm products.....	88.3	80.8	+9.3
Metals and metal products.....	90.4	95.8	+3.8	All commodities other than farm products.....	89.0	83.0	+7.1
Agricultural imple- ments.....	93.5	92.5	+1.1				
Farm machinery.....	94.5	93.7	+0.9				
Iron and steel.....	96.4	95.1	+1.4				

<sup>1</sup> No data.

<sup>2</sup> Data not yet available.

Index numbers for the groups and subgroups of commodities for selected years are shown in table 2.

TABLE 2.

All commo-  
dities.....  
Farm produ-  
cts.....  
    Grains.....  
    Livestock.....  
    Other com-  
    modities.....

Foods.....  
    Dairy.....  
    Cereal.....  
    Fruits.....  
    Meats.....  
    Other foods.....

Hides and  
leather.....  
    Shoes.....  
    Hides.....  
    Leather.....  
    Other leather products.....

Textile prod-  
ucts.....  
    Clothing.....  
    Cotton goods.....  
    Hosiery and under-  
    ware.....  
    Rayon.....  
    Silk.....  
    Woolen and worsted  
    goods.....  
    Other textile products.....

Fuel and light-  
ing materials.....  
    Anthracite.....  
    Bituminous coal.....  
    Coke.....  
    Electricity.....  
    Gas.....  
    Petroleum and prod-  
    ucts.....

Metals and  
metal products.....  
    Agricultural imple-  
    ments.....  
    Farm machinery.....  
    Iron and steel.....

Building ma-  
terials.....  
    Brick and tile.....  
    Cement.....  
    Lumber.....  
    Paint and paint mate-  
    rials.....  
    Plumbing and heating.....  
    Structural steel.....  
    Other building mate-  
    rials.....

Chemical prod-  
ucts.....  
    Chemicals.....  
    Drugs and pharmaceu-  
    ticals.....  
    Fertilizer materials.....  
    Mixed fertilizers.....  
    Oils and fats.....

Housefurnish-  
ing goods.....  
    Furnishings.....  
    Furniture.....

Miscellaneous.....  
    Automobile tires and  
    tubes.....  
    Cattle feed.....  
    Paper and pulp.....  
    Rubber, crude.....  
    Other miscellaneous.....

Raw ma-  
terials.....  
    Semimanufac-  
    tured articles.....  
    Manufactured products.....  
    All commodities other than  
    farm products.....  
    All commodities other than  
    farm products.....

<sup>1</sup> Data

TABLE 2.—Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities

[1926=100]

Group and subgroup	1941	1940	1939	1938	1937	1933	1931	1929
All commodities	87.3	78.6	77.1	78.6	86.3	85.9	73.0	95.3
Farm products	82.4	87.7	85.3	88.5	86.4	81.4	84.8	104.9
Grains	76.9	68.0	58.6	60.6	98.3	53.1	53.0	97.4
Livestock and poultry	91.6	69.2	72.2	79.0	95.5	43.4	63.9	106.1
Other farm products	77.8	66.1	62.6	63.9	77.2	55.8	69.2	106.6
Foods	82.7	71.3	70.4	73.6	85.5	80.5	74.6	99.9
Dairy products	87.3	77.6	69.5	72.8	83.1	60.7	81.8	105.6
Cereal products	80.7	78.3	74.8	78.4	87.6	75.0	73.1	88.0
Fruits and vegetables	67.5	63.1	62.0	58.2	74.2	61.7	72.4	97.8
Meats	90.4	73.3	77.2	83.3	99.1	50.0	75.4	109.1
Other foods	78.9	63.5	64.1	67.5	75.6	61.1	69.8	93.9
Hides and leather products	108.3	100.8	95.6	92.8	104.6	80.9	88.1	109.1
Shoes	113.5	107.6	102.6	102.2	105.0	90.2	93.7	106.3
Hides and skins	108.4	91.9	84.6	73.6	113.5	67.1	60.2	112.7
Leather	97.9	92.5	87.5	83.7	96.8	71.4	86.2	113.2
Other leather products	104.7	99.9	97.1	98.5	102.6	81.1	101.4	106.4
Textile products	84.8	73.8	69.7	66.7	76.3	64.8	66.3	90.4
Clothing	92.6	85.2	82.0	82.9	87.9	72.2	75.9	90.0
Cotton goods	94.2	71.4	67.2	65.4	84.3	71.2	66.1	98.8
Hosiery and underwear	63.1	62.3	61.4	60.3	65.1	58.9	60.9	88.5
Rayon	29.5	29.5	28.8	28.9	33.3	33.0	41.2	68.4
Silk	46.8	46.1	29.6	32.7	29.8	43.7	82.7	—
Woolen and worsted goods	96.6	85.7	79.8	77.4	91.1	69.3	68.2	88.3
Other textile products	90.7	74.5	69.2	65.5	68.4	72.5	75.1	93.1
Fuel and lighting materials	76.2	71.7	73.1	76.5	77.6	66.3	67.5	83.0
Anthracite	82.7	78.9	75.8	78.0	77.8	82.2	91.1	90.1
Bituminous coal	104.3	97.6	97.5	99.0	98.6	82.8	84.6	91.3
Coke	119.3	110.2	105.6	104.8	103.1	77.9	82.4	84.6
Electricity	(1)	74.5	78.6	84.9	80.4	94.3	98.8	94.5
Gas	(1)	82.0	84.1	86.1	82.4	97.5	98.7	93.1
Petroleum and products	57.0	50.0	52.2	55.9	60.5	41.0	39.5	71.3
Metals and metal products	99.4	95.8	94.4	95.7	95.7	79.8	84.5	100.5
Agricultural implements	93.5	92.5	93.4	95.5	94.0	83.5	92.1	98.7
Farm machinery	94.5	93.7	94.6	96.9	95.6	87.7	93.5	98.0
Iron and steel	96.4	95.1	95.8	98.6	98.2	78.6	83.3	94.9
Motor vehicles	103.3	96.7	93.4	95.4	89.3	83.2	89.5	100.0
Nonferrous metals	84.4	81.3	78.0	72.8	89.6	59.6	61.9	106.1
Plumbing and heating	84.8	80.4	79.2	78.5	78.8	67.1	84.7	95.0
Building materials	103.2	94.8	90.5	90.3	95.2	77.0	79.2	95.4
Brick and tile	93.7	90.5	91.4	91.0	93.5	79.2	83.6	94.3
Cement	92.0	90.8	91.3	90.3	89.0	88.1	74.8	89.0
Lumber	122.5	102.9	93.2	87.4	99.7	70.7	69.5	93.8
Paint and paint materials	91.4	85.7	82.8	81.3	83.4	73.3	79.4	94.9
Plumbing and heating	84.8	80.4	79.2	78.5	78.8	67.1	84.7	95.0
Structural steel	107.3	107.3	107.3	111.0	113.2	83.1	83.1	98.1
Other building materials	98.3	93.3	90.3	92.7	99.1	82.7	84.8	97.7
Chemicals and allied products	84.6	77.0	76.0	77.0	82.6	73.1	79.3	94.0
Chemicals	87.2	85.1	84.7	86.4	88.2	86.8	90.2	99.7
Drugs and pharmaceuticals	105.1	88.9	78.2	79.0	86.6	54.6	59.2	66.8
Fertilizer materials	73.5	69.4	67.9	67.0	69.0	62.9	76.6	95.6
Mixed fertilizers	76.9	73.8	73.0	72.6	73.8	64.0	80.5	95.2
Oils and fats	77.6	44.3	48.4	49.6	76.8	39.4	48.9	89.0
Housefurnishings goods	94.3	88.5	86.3	86.8	89.7	75.8	84.9	94.3
Furnishings	99.9	94.7	91.1	90.8	93.4	76.6	82.2	93.6
Furniture	88.4	81.8	81.3	82.8	85.9	75.1	88.0	95.0
Miscellaneous	82.0	77.3	74.8	73.3	77.8	62.5	69.8	82.6
Automobile tires and tubes	61.0	57.8	59.5	57.7	55.8	42.1	46.0	54.5
Cattle feed	101.2	87.8	83.3	76.9	110.5	57.9	62.7	121.6
Paper and pulp	98.2	91.7	82.4	85.0	91.7	76.6	81.4	88.9
Rubber, crude	46.1	41.5	37.2	30.5	40.5	12.2	12.8	42.3
Other miscellaneous	87.8	84.1	82.6	81.5	84.7	76.2	88.0	98.4
Raw materials	83.5	71.9	70.2	72.0	84.8	56.5	65.6	97.5
Semimanufactured articles	86.9	79.1	77.0	75.4	85.3	65.4	69.0	93.9
Finished products	89.1	81.6	80.4	82.2	87.2	70.5	77.0	94.5
All commodities other than farm products	85.3	80.8	79.5	80.6	86.2	69.0	74.6	93.3
All commodities other than farm products and foods	89.0	83.0	81.3	81.7	85.3	71.2	75.0	91.6

<sup>1</sup> Data not yet available.

From the 5-year low point of August 1939 immediately preceding the outbreak of the war to December 1941, prices for nearly all types of commodities have risen substantially. Among the outstanding increases were 55 percent for farm products; 35 percent for foods and textile products; more than 20 percent for hides and leather products, building materials, and chemicals and allied products; more than 15 percent for housefurnishing goods and miscellaneous commodities; 10 percent for metals and metal products; and 8 percent for fuel and lighting materials. Since August 1939 prices for industrial fats and oils have risen 151 percent; for cattle feed, 82 percent; grains, 77 percent; cotton goods, 60 percent; drugs and pharmaceuticals, 64 percent; livestock and poultry, dairy products, lumber, "other farm products," "other foods," and "other textile products," from 40 to 55 percent; and for cereal products, fruits and vegetables, meats, leather, clothing, woolen and worsted goods, motor vehicles, paper and pulp, and crude rubber, 20 to 35 percent.

Further advances in wholesale market prices for domestic agricultural products dominated the commodity markets in December, while prices for most industrial commodities, except chemicals and allied products, were comparatively steady. Over the month the Bureau's general index of nearly 900 wholesale price series rose 1.2 percent, to 93.6 percent of the 1926 level—the peak since October 1929. In the past year the index rose 17 percent, to nearly 25 percent above the pre-war level of August 1939.

Average prices for farm products in wholesale markets rose 4.5 percent in December, primarily because of increases of more than 7½ percent for grains and livestock. In the past year farm product prices have risen nearly 36 percent and are higher than at any time since April 1930.

Food prices in wholesale markets rose 1.3 percent in December, 23 percent higher than a year ago. Increases of 5 percent for meats and 4 percent for cereal products contributed largely to the advance. In addition, quotations were higher for coffee, lard, molasses, oleomargarine, pepper, tea, canned salmon, and for vegetable oils. Although the fruit and vegetable subgroup index dropped more than 5 percent because of sharp declines in prices for bananas and oranges, quotations were higher for most canned and dried fruits and for lemons. Prices for butter, cheese, eggs, and mutton were lower in December than in November.

The index for hides and leather products increased 0.6 percent to a 13-year peak. Shoes and leather advanced slightly, while substantially higher prices were reported for goatskins, harness, and luggage.

An increase of 2 percent for cotton goods, the prices nearly all of which are geared to quotations on raw cotton under a sliding scale ceiling, featured textile product markets in December. Prices for

imported fibers such as jute and hemp declined. The textile products group index, 91.8 percent of the 1926 average, reached its highest point since the spring of 1929.

Weakening prices for fuel oil and gasoline from the Pennsylvania fields, for kerosene, and for bituminous coal in some areas caused the fuel and lighting materials group index to drop 0.5 percent.

The index for the metals and metal products group remained unchanged at 103.3 percent of the 1926 level.

Continued advances in prices for paint materials and for lumber, brought the building materials group index to the highest point in over 18 years. Increases of more than 10 percent occurred in prices for rosin and shellac, while linseed oil rose nearly 8 percent. Turpentine declined 4 percent during the month.

An advance of 9.7 percent for industrial fats and oils was largely responsible for an increase of 1.7 percent in the chemicals and allied products group index. Prices for glycerine and ergot declined in December.

Minor increases were reported in prices for office chairs and desks and for some types of household furniture. Furnishings, such as cotton blankets and window shades, also averaged higher than a month ago.

Average wholesale prices for cattle feed rose 3 percent and paper and pulp advanced 0.3 percent. Higher prices were also reported for soap and matches.

Percentage comparisons of the December 1941 level of wholesale prices with December 1940, November 1941, and the low point of 1939, with corresponding index numbers are given in table 3.

TABLE 3.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices and Percentage Changes by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities for Specified Periods*

[1926 = 100]

Group and subgroup	De-cem-ber 1941	No-vem-ber 1941	Per-cent-age change from a month ago	De-cem-ber 1940	Per-cent-age change from a year ago	Au-gust 1939	Per-cent-age change from August 1939
All commodities.....	93.6	92.5	+1.2	80.0	+17.0	75.0	+24.8
Farm products.....	94.7	90.6	+4.5	89.7	+35.9	61.0	+55.2
Grains.....	91.0	84.3	+7.9	67.0	+35.8	51.5	+76.7
Livestock and poultry.....	97.4	90.6	+7.5	72.7	+34.0	66.0	+47.6
Other farm products.....	93.4	91.7	+1.9	68.1	+37.2	60.1	+55.4
Foods.....	90.5	89.3	+1.3	73.5	+23.1	67.2	+34.7
Dairy products.....	95.5	96.3	-8	84.2	+13.4	67.9	+40.6
Cereal products.....	89.3	85.9	+4.0	74.3	+20.2	71.9	+24.2
Fruits and vegetables.....	73.8	77.9	-5.3	61.2	+20.6	58.5	+26.2
Meats.....	95.3	90.8	+5.0	77.0	+23.8	73.7	+29.3
Other foods.....	89.2	89.0	+.2	67.0	+33.1	60.3	+47.9
Hides and leather products.....	114.8	114.1	+.6	102.3	+12.2	92.7	+23.8
Shoes.....	120.7	120.5	+.2	107.2	+12.6	100.8	+19.7
Hides and skins.....	115.9	114.0	+1.7	99.3	+16.7	77.2	+50.1
Leather.....	101.3	101.1	+.2	94.1	+7.7	84.0	+20.6
Other leather products.....	112.8	111.5	+1.2	99.7	+13.1	97.1	+16.2

TABLE 3.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices and Percentage Changes by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities for Specified Periods—Continued*

[1926=100]

Group and subgroup	De-cem-ber 1941	No-vem-ber 194	Per-cent-age change from a month ago	De-cem-ber 1940	Per-cent-age change from a year ago	Au-gust 1939	Per-cent-age change from Au-gust 1939	Year an-
<b>Textile products.</b>								
Clothing.	91.8	91.1	+0.8	74.8	+22.7	67.8	+35.4	1926
Cotton goods.	98.4	97.9	+5	85.5	+15.1	81.5	+20.7	1929
Hosiery and underwear.	107.5	105.4	+2.0	74.9	+43.5	66.5	+64.1	1932
Rayon.	67.0	67.0	0	60.7	+10.4	61.5	+8.9	1933
Silk.	30.3	30.3	0	29.5	+2.7	28.5	+6.3	1937
Woolen and worsted goods.	102.7	102.6	+1	89.0	+15.4	75.5	+36.0	1938
Other textile products.	96.2	96.0	+2	74.6	+29.0	63.7	+51.0	1939
<b>Fuel and lighting materials.</b>								By years:
Anthracite.	78.4	78.8	-5	71.7	+9.3	72.6	+8.0	1926
Bituminous coal.	85.3	85.3	0	80.9	+5.4	72.1	+18.3	1929
Coke.	108.0	108.2	-2	100.4	+7.6	96.0	+12.5	1932
Electricity.	122.2	122.2	0	113.6	+7.6	104.2	+17.3	1933
Gas.	(1)	(1)		73.4		75.8		1940:
Petroleum and products.	59.8	60.4	-1.0	49.5	+20.8	51.7	+15.7	D
<b>Metals and metal products.</b>								1941:
Agricultural implements.	103.3	103.3	0	97.8	+5.8	93.2	+10.8	J
Farm machinery.	96.4	96.3	+1	92.6	+4.1	93.5	+3.1	J
Iron and steel.	97.5	97.4	+1	93.9	+3.8	94.7	+3.0	A
Motor vehicles.	97.0	97.1	-1	95.4	+1.7	95.1	+2.0	S
Nonferrous metals.	112.4	112.3	+1	100.3	+12.1	92.5	+21.5	C
Plumbing and heating.	84.8	84.8	0	83.4	+1.7	74.6	+13.7	M
<b>Building materials.</b>								N
Brick and tile.	107.8	107.5	+3	99.3	+8.6	89.6	+20.3	1942
Cement.	96.7	96.6	+1	91.1	+6.1	90.5	+6.9	T
Lumber.	93.4	93.1	+3	90.9	+2.8	91.3	+2.3	manu-
Paint and paint materials.	129.4	128.7	+5	118.8	+8.9	90.1	+43.6	comm-
Plumbing and heating.	96.5	95.3	+1.3	85.4	+13.0	82.1	+17.5	and r
Structural steel.	89.1	87.9	+1.4	80.5	+10.7	79.3	+12.4	TAB
Other building materials.	107.3	107.3	0	107.3	0	107.3	0	Year
<b>Chemicals and allied products.</b>								1926
Chemicals.	91.3	89.8	+1.7	77.7	+17.5	74.2	+23.0	1929
Drugs and pharmaceuticals.	88.6	88.3	+3	85.4	+3.7	83.8	+5.7	1932
Fertilizer materials.	123.0	123.2	-2	96.2	+27.9	77.1	+59.5	1933
Mixed fertilizers.	77.8	77.3	+6	70.0	+11.1	65.5	+18.8	1940
Oils and fats.	81.2	79.6	+2.0	74.3	+9.3	73.1	+11.1	1941
101.9	92.9	+0.7	42.4	+140.3	40.6	+151.0	1942	
<b>Housefurnishing goods.</b>								1937
Furnishings.	101.1	100.6	+5	88.9	+13.7	85.6	+18.1	1938
Furniture.	105.6	105.2	+4	95.1	+11.0	90.0	+17.3	1939
<b>Miscellaneous.</b>								1940
Automobile tires and tubes.	87.6	87.3	+3	77.3	+13.3	73.3	+19.5	1941
Cattle feed.	67.4	67.4	0	58.3	+15.6	60.5	+11.4	1942
Paper and pulp.	124.4	120.7	+3.1	90.1	+38.1	68.4	+81.9	1943
Rubber, crude.	102.5	102.2	+3	93.1	+10.1	80.0	+28.1	1944
Other miscellaneous.	46.3	46.3	0	42.7	+8.4	34.9	+32.7	1945
<b>Raw materials.</b>								1946
Semimanufactured articles.	92.3	90.2	+2.3	73.6	+25.4	66.5	+38.5	1947
Manufactured products.	90.1	89.7	+4	80.7	+11.6	74.5	+20.9	1948
All commodities other than farm products.	94.6	93.8	+9	82.8	+14.3	79.1	+19.6	1949
All commodities other than farm products and foods.	93.3	92.7	+6	82.1	+13.6	77.9	+19.8	1950
93.7	93.5	+2	84.1	+11.4	80.1	+17.0	1951	

<sup>1</sup> Data not yet available.

### Index Numbers by Groups of Commodities

Index numbers of wholesale prices by commodity groups for selected years from 1926 to 1941, inclusive, and by months from December 1940 to December 1941, inclusive, are shown in table 4.

TABLE 4.—Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Groups of Commodities

[1926=100]

Year and month	Farm products	Foods	Hides and leather products	Textile products	Fuel and lighting	Metals and metal products	Building materials	Chemicals and allied products	House-furnishing goods	Miscellaneous	All commodities
<b>By years:</b>											
1926	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1929	104.9	99.9	109.1	90.4	83.0	100.5	95.4	94.0	94.3	82.6	95.3
1932	48.2	61.0	72.9	54.9	70.3	80.2	71.4	73.9	75.1	64.4	64.8
1933	51.4	60.5	80.9	64.8	66.3	79.8	77.0	72.1	75.8	62.5	65.9
1937	86.4	85.5	104.6	76.3	77.6	95.7	95.2	82.6	89.7	77.8	86.3
1938	68.5	73.6	92.8	66.7	76.5	95.7	90.3	77.0	86.8	73.3	78.6
1939	65.3	70.4	95.6	69.7	73.1	94.4	90.5	76.0	86.3	74.8	77.1
1940	67.7	71.3	100.8	73.8	71.7	95.8	94.8	77.0	88.5	77.3	78.6
1941	82.4	82.7	108.3	84.8	76.2	99.4	103.2	84.6	94.3	82.0	87.3
<b>By months:</b>											
1940:											
December	69.7	73.5	102.3	74.8	71.7	97.6	99.3	77.7	88.9	77.3	80.0
1941:											
January	71.6	73.7	102.4	75.2	72.1	97.7	99.6	78.6	89.0	77.1	80.8
February	70.3	73.5	101.6	76.4	72.1	97.6	99.3	78.5	89.1	76.9	80.6
March	71.6	75.2	102.6	78.4	72.0	97.7	99.5	79.8	89.5	77.6	81.5
April	74.4	77.9	103.9	81.0	72.9	97.9	100.1	81.8	90.4	78.6	83.2
May	76.4	79.5	106.4	83.0	75.6	98.1	100.4	83.6	91.4	79.6	84.9
June	82.1	83.1	107.8	84.5	77.9	98.3	101.0	83.8	93.1	80.6	87.1
July	85.8	84.7	109.4	86.2	78.5	98.5	103.1	85.2	94.4	82.0	88.8
August	87.4	87.2	110.2	88.3	79.0	98.6	105.5	86.0	95.4	83.7	90.3
September	91.0	89.5	111.3	89.7	79.2	98.6	106.4	87.4	97.2	85.1	91.8
October	90.0	88.9	112.6	90.9	79.6	103.1	107.3	89.7	99.5	86.4	92.4
November	90.6	89.3	114.1	91.1	78.8	103.3	107.5	89.8	100.6	87.3	92.5
December	94.7	90.5	114.8	91.8	78.4	103.3	107.8	91.3	101.1	87.6	93.6

The trend in prices of raw materials, semimanufactured articles, manufactured products, commodities other than farm products, and commodities other than farm products and foods for specified years and months since 1926 is shown in table 5.

TABLE 5.—Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Special Groups of Commodities

[1926=100]

Year and month	Raw materials	Semi-manufactured articles	Manufactured products	All commodities other than farm products and foods	Year and month	Raw materials	Semi-manufactured articles	Manufactured products	All commodities other than farm products and foods		
<b>By years:</b>											
1926	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	By months—Con.					
1929	97.5	93.9	94.5	93.3	91.6	January	74.6	81.3	83.5	82.7	84.3
1932	55.1	59.3	70.3	68.3	70.2	February	74.0	81.6	83.5	82.7	84.4
1933	56.5	65.4	70.5	69.0	71.2	March	75.3	83.4	84.2	83.6	84.9
1937	84.8	85.3	87.2	86.2	85.3	April	77.5	85.1	85.5	85.0	85.9
1938	72.0	75.4	82.2	80.6	81.7	May	79.7	86.4	87.1	86.6	87.4
1939	70.2	77.0	80.4	79.5	81.3	June	83.6	87.6	88.6	88.0	88.6
1940	71.9	79.1	81.6	80.8	83.0	July	86.1	87.9	90.1	89.3	89.7
1941	83.5	86.9	89.1	88.3	89.0	August	87.6	89.5	91.5	90.7	90.8
<b>By months:</b>											
1940:						September	90.0	90.3	92.8	91.9	91.6
December	73.6	80.7	82.8	82.1	84.1	October	89.7	89.9	93.9	92.8	93.4
						November	90.2	89.7	93.8	92.7	93.5
						December	92.3	90.1	94.6	93.3	93.7

# *Trend of Employment and Unemployment*

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## **SUMMARY OF REPORTS OF EMPLOYMENT FOR DECEMBER 1941**

### ***Total Nonagricultural Employment***

TOTAL civil nonagricultural employment showed a gain of 207,000 workers between November and December, bringing the total number employed to 40,963,000. This was the highest level on record, exceeding the December 1940 total by 2,802,000 and the December 1929 figure by 5,047,000. These figures do not include CCC enrollees, workers on WPA or NYA projects, nor the armed forces. Employment on the work-relief programs was 1,828,000 in December.

Five of the major industrial groups covered showed declines in employment over the month interval, namely, contract construction; manufacturing; transportation and public utilities; finance, service, and miscellaneous; and mining. The two groups showing gains were trade and Federal, State, and local government. The increase in trade reflected the hiring of temporary personnel to handle the holiday business in retail stores, and the increase in Government employment was due in large part to temporary expansion of Post-Office personnel.

A comparison with December of last year showed substantial gains in all of the major groups as follows: Manufacturing, 1,599,000; Federal, State, and local government, 423,000; trade, 256,000; transportation and public utilities, 248,000; finance, service, and miscellaneous, 124,000; contract construction, 100,000; and mining, 52,000.

### ***Industrial and Business Employment***

Gains in employment between mid-November and mid-December were reported by 68 of the 157 manufacturing and by 8 of the 16 non-manufacturing industries regularly surveyed by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Pay-roll increases were reported by 109 of the manufacturing and 12 of the nonmanufacturing industries.

The decrease of 37,000 wage earners in all manufacturing industries combined was caused largely by a sharp reduction in employment in automobile plants, as passenger car production was cut during the latter part of December, and by a greater-than-seasonal decline in the canning and preserving industry. These decreases were partly offset

by continued gains in war industries and by a sharp rise in the slaughtering and meat-packing industry.

Despite the decline in manufacturing employment, there was a gain of 2.9 percent, or \$9,113,000, in weekly pay rolls.

The employment index for all manufacturing industries combined in December stood at 134.3 percent of the 1923-25 average, and the pay-roll index at 170.2. Compared with December 1940, factory wage-earner employment had increased by 15.6 percent (1,427,000), and corresponding weekly wages by 39.1 percent (\$90,573,000). The larger increase in pay rolls than in employment reflected overtime premiums, wage-rate increases, and expansion in working hours.

Among the nonmanufacturing industries, retail trade showed a seasonal increase of 9.5 percent between mid-November and mid-December, bringing the index for that industry to the highest December level on record. Substantial employment declines were reported for building construction, dyeing and cleaning, quarrying and non-metallic mining, and anthracite mining. The increases and decreases in the remaining nonmanufacturing industries did not exceed 0.5 percent in any industry.

A preliminary report of the Interstate Commerce Commission for class I steam railroads showed an employment decrease of 1.5 percent between November and December, the total number employed in December being 1,184,536. Corresponding pay-roll figures for December were not available when this report was prepared. For November, they were \$192,724,101, a decrease of \$14,251,885 since October.

*Hours and earnings.*—The average hours worked per week by manufacturing wage earners were 41.2 in December, an increase of 2.3 percent since November. Corresponding average hourly earnings were 78.7 cents, a gain of 0.8 percent over the preceding month. The average weekly earnings of factory wage earners (both full and part-time combined) were \$33.69, an increase of 3.3 percent since November.

Of the 16 nonmanufacturing industries regularly surveyed, 13 reported increases in average weekly earnings. Of the 14 nonmanufacturing industries for which man-hours are available, 12 showed increases in average hours worked per week and 8 showed gains in average hourly earnings.

Wage-rate increases averaging 7.4 percent and affecting approximately 238,000 wage earners were reported by nearly 600 manufacturing plants out of a reporting sample of approximately 34,000 plants employing about 7,800,000 wage earners. As the Bureau's survey does not cover all establishments in an industry and furthermore, as some firms may have failed to report wage-rate changes, these figures should not be construed as representing the total number of wage changes occurring in manufacturing industries.

Employment and pay-roll indexes and average weekly earnings for November and December 1941 and December 1940 are given where available in table 1 for all manufacturing industries combined, for selected nonmanufacturing industries, for water transportation, and for class I railroads.

TABLE 1.—*Employment, Pay Rolls, and Earnings in All Manufacturing Industries Combined and in Nonmanufacturing Industries, November and December 1941 and December 1940*

[Preliminary figures]

Industry	Employment index			Pay-roll index			Average weekly earnings		
	December 1941	November 1941	December 1940	December 1941	November 1941	December 1940	December 1941	November 1941	December 1940
All manufacturing industries combined <sup>1</sup>	(1923-25=100)			(1923-25=100)					
Class I steam railroads <sup>2</sup>	134.3	134.8	116.2	170.2	165.4	122.4	\$33.69	\$32.80	\$27.89
Coal mining:				(1935-39=100)	(1935-39=100)	(1929=100)			
Anthracite <sup>4</sup>	49.1	50.2	50.8	35.9	41.8	42.7	24.05	27.38	27.60
Bituminous <sup>4</sup>	95.4	95.1	90.1	119.6	116.3	91.4	33.47	32.62	27.12
Metaliferous mining <sup>5</sup>	79.5	79.5	72.2	90.9	89.8	72.8	36.20	35.74	31.41
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	50.8	52.6	45.4	56.0	57.5	42.4	27.87	27.66	23.42
Crude-petroleum production	61.0	60.9	60.7	64.9	64.2	55.9	39.37	38.79	33.96
Public utilities:									
Telephone and telegraph <sup>6</sup>	89.6	90.1	79.7	124.1	118.3	103.5	7 33.83	7 32.08	7 31.88
Electric light and power <sup>6</sup>	93.3	93.4	91.3	116.3	115.2	106.0	7 38.00	7 37.60	7 35.37
Street railways and busses <sup>6,8</sup>	70.4	70.2	68.4	80.1	78.2	73.1	7 37.14	7 36.35	7 34.91
Trade:									
Wholesale <sup>9</sup>	96.5	96.3	92.5	92.7	91.6	83.4	7 33.75	7 33.44	7 31.25
Retail <sup>9</sup>	112.8	103.0	108.1	107.9	98.5	97.3	7 21.79	7 21.88	7 20.37
Hotels (year-round) <sup>10</sup>	95.6	96.1	92.6	93.5	93.2	84.1	7 16.91	7 16.77	7 15.75
Laundries <sup>11</sup>	108.4	108.9	100.3	102.7	101.9	89.2	19.68	19.44	18.36
Dyeing and cleaning <sup>11</sup>	113.1	117.2	103.3	88.5	93.0	75.8	21.79	22.09	20.09
Brokerage <sup>11</sup>	+.4	-1.2	-9.5	+1.2	-.5	-5.7	7 40.55	7 40.22	7 38.86
Insurance <sup>11</sup>	+.4	(12)	+2.4	+1.5	-.4	+5.2	7 38.13	7 37.73	7 36.95
Building construction <sup>11</sup>	-5.7	-2.8	+2.1	-.7	-5.1	+17.0	37.73	35.93	32.63
Water transportation <sup>13</sup>	77.5	77.4	76.2	(8)	(8)	(8)	(8)	(8)	(8)

<sup>1</sup> Indexes adjusted to preliminary 1939 Census of Manufactures. See table 9 in December 1940 "Employment and Pay Rolls" for comparable series back to January 1919.

<sup>2</sup> Preliminary; source—Interstate Commerce Commission.

<sup>3</sup> Not available.

<sup>4</sup> Indexes adjusted to 1935 Census. Comparable series back to January 1929 presented in January 1938 issue of the pamphlet, Employment and Pay Rolls. See also table 7 of October 1940 pamphlet for revised figures for anthracite mining, February to September 1940, inclusive.

<sup>5</sup> See table 7 of February 1941 pamphlet for revised figures January 1938 to January 1941.

<sup>6</sup> Retail-trade indexes adjusted to 1935 Census and public-utility indexes to 1937 Census. Not comparable with indexes published in pamphlets prior to January 1940 or in the Monthly Labor Review prior to April 1940. Revised series available upon request.

<sup>7</sup> Average weekly earnings not strictly comparable with figures published in issues of the pamphlet dated earlier than January 1938, or in the Monthly Labor Review dated earlier than April 1938 (except for the January figures appearing in the March issue), as they now exclude corporation officers, executives, and other employees whose duties are mainly supervisory.

<sup>8</sup> Covers street railways and trolley and motorbus operations of subsidiary, affiliated, and successor companies.

<sup>9</sup> Indexes adjusted to 1933 Census. Comparable series in November 1934 and subsequent issues of pamphlet or February 1935 and subsequent issues of Monthly Labor Review.

<sup>10</sup> Cash payments only; the additional value of board, room, and tips cannot be computed.

<sup>11</sup> Indexes of employment and pay rolls not available. Percentage changes from November to December 1941, October to November 1941, and December 1940 to December 1941 substituted.

<sup>12</sup> Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

<sup>13</sup> Based on estimates prepared by the U. S. Maritime Commission covering steam and motor merchant vessels of 1,000 gross tons or over in deep-sea trades only.

### *Public Employment*

The Federal Government added 85,000 employees in the executive, judicial, and legislative branches during the month of December. The increase was due, to a certain extent, to the temporary employment of seasonal Post Office workers. The total of 1,639,000 employees in these branches represented an increase over a year ago. Force-account workers engaged on Federal construction projects, but whose period of employment terminates at the completion of the project, numbered 194,000, or 12 percent of the total.

Although seasonal declines in the construction industry were seen in the 42,800 fewer workers given employment in the month ending December 15 on projects financed from regular Federal appropriations, increased activity took place on the construction of airports and naval and other vessels, and employment on all defense construction work was 352,000 higher than a year ago. In the current month, defense and nondefense construction work together required the services of 1,062,000 persons, who were paid a total of \$172,722,000.

Seasonal declines also occurred on construction projects financed from USHA, PWA, and RFC funds. During the month, these three programs dropped 14,500 workers—almost 25 percent.

The decline of 50,100 persons on work-relief programs during December was distributed as follows: WPA, 3,300, NYA, 27,700, and CCC, 19,100 persons. The NYA decline took place mainly in the out-of-school work program, and the CCC decline occurred mainly in the enrollee group. Total personnel of these work programs in December was 1,828,000 and total pay rolls were \$86,227,000. Employment was 38 percent lower than a year ago.

For the regular Federal services, data for the legislative, judicial, and force-account employees, are reported to the Bureau of Labor Statistics by the respective offices, while data for the executive service employees are reported through the Civil Service Commission. The Bureau of Labor Statistics receives monthly reports on employment and pay rolls for the various construction projects financed wholly or partially by Federal funds directly from the contractors and subcontractors, and for the work-relief programs from the respective agencies.

A summary of employment and pay-roll data in the regular Federal services and on construction and work-relief projects financed wholly or partially from Federal funds is given in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Employment and Pay Rolls in Regular Federal Services and on Projects Financed Wholly or Partially from Federal Funds, December 1940, November and December 1941*<sup>1</sup>

[Preliminary figures]

Class	Employment			Pay rolls		
	December 1941	Novem- ber 1941	Decem- ber 1940	December 1941	November 1941	December 1940
<b>Federal services:</b>						
Executive <sup>2</sup>	1,670,000	1,545,131	1,184,344	\$252,463,000	\$237,398,486	\$183,707,026
Judicial	2,593	2,582	2,514	656,938	654,806	652,507
Legislative	6,280	6,202	5,921	1,369,262	1,360,645	1,365,706
<b>Construction projects:</b>						
Financed by regular Fed- eral appropriations	41,062,396	1,105,160	738,106	172,721,825	167,455,277	87,263,100
Defense	944,648	957,586	592,274	156,025,378	148,807,105	72,832,617
Other	117,748	147,574	145,832	16,696,447	18,648,172	14,430,483
Financed by USHA	3,28,000	35,484	48,008	4,354,000	3,981,702	4,886,898
Defense	7,027	9,649	4,906	1,257,000	1,149,347	418,968
Other	20,973	25,835	43,102	3,097,000	2,832,355	4,467,930
Financed by PWA <sup>3</sup>	2,581	2,694	21,083	479,827	322,668	2,190,324
Financed by RFC <sup>4</sup>	16,667	23,590	3,582	2,877,769	3,590,705	368,149
Defense	14,878	21,531	(?)	2,629,608	3,313,032	(?)
Other	1,789	2,060	(?)	248,161	277,673	(?)
Work Project Administra- tion projects	1,053,095	1,056,401	1,874,903	60,500,000	60,600,000	103,291,574
Defense	322,406	324,107	(?)	20,500,000	18,100,000	(?)
Other	730,689	732,294	(?)	49,000,000	42,500,000	(?)
National Youth Administra- tion:						
Student-work program	334,284	341,308	450,731	2,294,344	2,367,642	3,125,149
Out-of-school work prog- ram	288,129	308,825	331,382	6,928,891	7,500,523	6,522,370
Civilian Conservation Corps	152,371	171,493	285,731	7,503,757	8,242,555	12,928,027

<sup>1</sup> An explanation of the employment count and pay-roll period is contained in footnotes to the detailed tables of a separate pamphlet entitled, "Employment and Pay Rolls, November, 1941."

<sup>2</sup> Includes force-account and supervisory and technical employees shown under other classifications to the extent of 216,489 employees and \$38,159,209 pay roll for December, and 224,054 employees and \$34,314,666 pay roll for November.

<sup>3</sup> Part of data estimated.

<sup>4</sup> Data for Federal-aid roads estimated.

<sup>5</sup> Includes data covering PWA projects financed from Emergency Relief Appropriation Acts, 1935, 1936, and 1937 funds, as follows: For December, 1,073 wage earners and \$129,206 pay roll; for November, 1,163 wage earners and \$133,333 pay roll. Also includes data covering PWA projects financed from Public Works Administration Appropriation Act, 1938 funds, as follows: For December, 1,416 wage earners and \$339,067 pay roll; for November, 1,411 wage earners and \$179,507 pay roll. Also includes data for PWA projects financed from National Industrial Recovery Act funds, as follows: For December, 92 wage earners and \$11,554 pay roll; for November, 120 wage earners and \$9,828 pay roll.

<sup>6</sup> Includes 349 employees and \$49,468 pay roll for December, 1,218 employees and \$149,238 pay roll for November on projects financed by the RFC Mortgage Co.

<sup>7</sup> Defense and other categories not set up.



## DETAILED REPORTS FOR INDUSTRIAL AND BUSINESS EMPLOYMENT, NOVEMBER 1941

A MONTHLY report on employment and pay rolls is published as a separate pamphlet by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. This gives detailed data regarding employment, pay rolls, working hours, and earnings for the current month for industrial and business establishments and for the various forms of public employment. This pamphlet is distributed free upon request. Its contents for the month of November 1941, insofar as industrial and business employment is concerned, are summarized here.

### Estimates of Nonagricultural Employment

In table 1 are given estimates of nonagricultural employment by major groups. The figures for "Total civil nonagricultural employment" and "Civil employees in nonagricultural establishments" are based on the number of nonagricultural "gainful workers," shown by the 1930 Census of Occupations (less the number who were unemployed for 1 week or more at the time of the census) and on regular reports of employers to the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics and to other Government agencies. The estimates for the individual industry groups are based in large part on industrial censuses and on the above-mentioned regular reports of employers.

Estimates of "Employees in nonagricultural establishments" by States are given each month in the pamphlet mentioned above.

TABLE 1.—Estimates of Total Nonagricultural Employment, by Major Groups

[In thousands]

Employment group	November 1941 (prelim- inary)	October 1941	Change October to November 1941	November 1940	Change November 1940 to November 1941
Total civil nonagricultural employment <sup>1</sup>	40,711	40,777	-66	37,528	+3,183
Civil employees in nonagricultural estab- lishments <sup>2</sup>					
Manufacturing <sup>3</sup>	34,568	34,634	-66	31,385	+3,183
Mining	12,746	12,799	-53	10,994	+1,752
Contract construction <sup>4</sup>	911	915	-4	853	+58
Transportation and public utilities	1,970	1,960	+10	1,709	+261
Trade <sup>5</sup>	3,307	3,365	-58	3,065	+242
Finance, service, and miscellaneous <sup>6</sup>	7,131	7,070	+61	6,795	+336
Federal, State, and local government	4,231	4,256	-25	4,088	+143
Military and naval forces (not included above)	4,272	4,269	+3	3,881	+391
	2,071	2,014	+57	822	+1,249

<sup>1</sup> Excludes employees on WPA and NYA projects and employees in CCC camps. Includes proprietors, firm members, self-employed persons, casual workers, and domestic servants. Includes allowance for adjustment of factory and trade totals to preliminary 1939 census figures. Revised series available on request.

<sup>2</sup> Excludes all of the groups omitted from "Total civil nonagricultural employment" as well as proprietors, firm members, self-employed persons, casual workers, and domestic servants.

<sup>3</sup> Adjusted to preliminary 1939 Census of Manufactures.

<sup>4</sup> Includes employees of construction contractors only. Does not include construction workers employed directly by other industries.

<sup>5</sup> Retail trade component adjusted to preliminary 1939 census.

<sup>6</sup> Revised series—not comparable to figures previously published.

### Industrial and Business Employment

Monthly reports on employment and pay rolls are available for 157 manufacturing industries; 16 nonmanufacturing industries, including private building construction; water transportation; and class I steam railroads. The reports for the first 2 of these groups—manufacturing and nonmanufacturing—are based on sample surveys by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The figures on water transportation are based on estimates prepared by the Maritime Commission, and those on class I steam railroads are compiled by the Interstate Commerce Commission.

The employment, pay-roll, hours, and earnings figures for manufacturing, mining, laundries, and dyeing and cleaning cover wage earners only, but the figures for public utilities, brokerage, insurance, and hotels relate to all employees except corporation officers and executives, while for trade they relate to all employees except corporation officers, executives, and other employees whose duties are mainly supervisory. For crude-petroleum production they cover wage earners and clerical field force. The coverage of the reporting samples for the various nonmanufacturing industries ranges from approximately 25 percent for wholesale and retail trade, dyeing and cleaning, and insurance, to approximately 80 percent for quarrying and nonmetallic mining, anthracite mining, and public utilities, and 90 percent for metal mining.

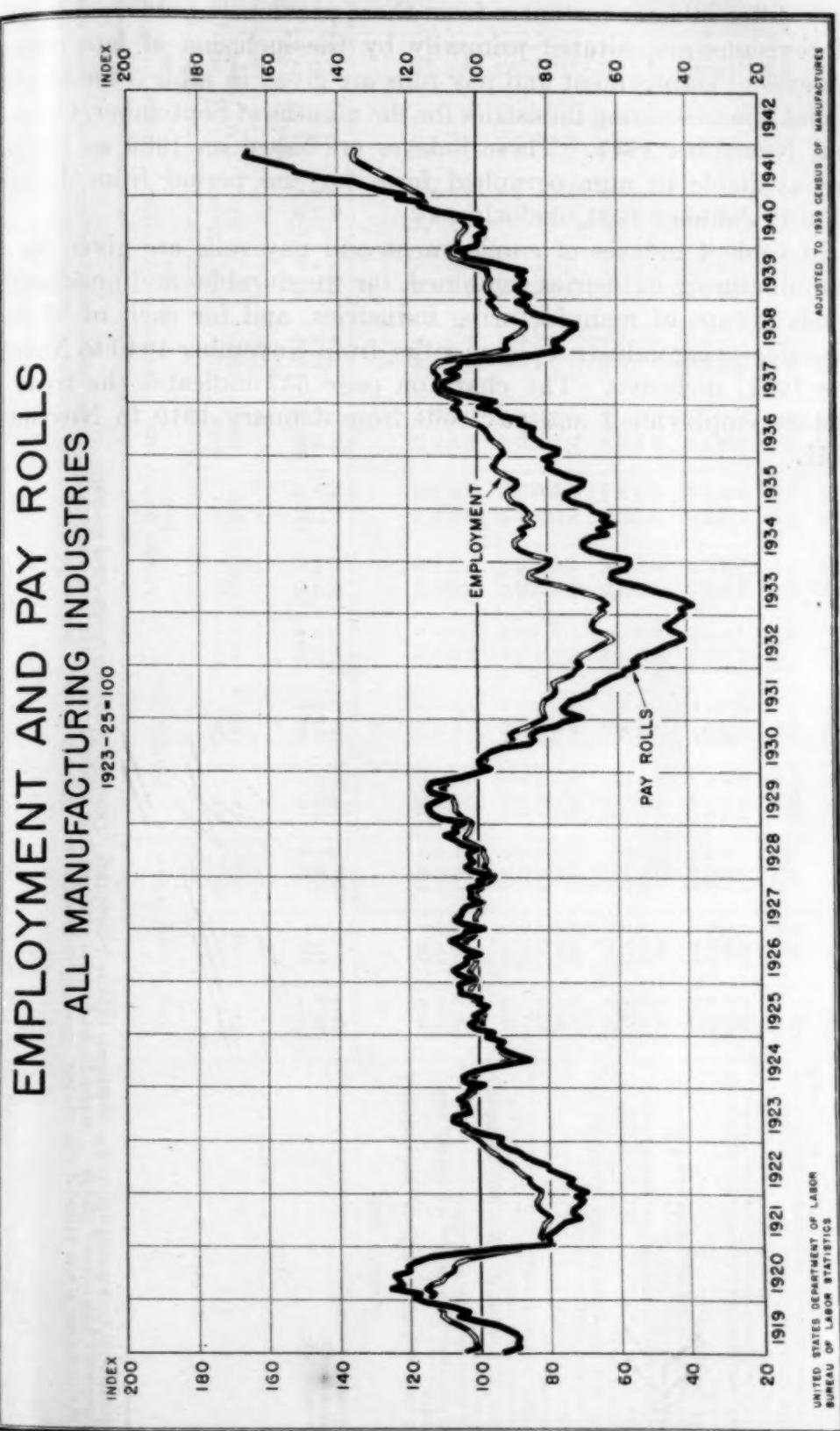
The general manufacturing indexes are computed from reports supplied by representative manufacturing establishments in 90 of the 157 industries surveyed. These reports cover more than 55 percent of the total wage earners in all manufacturing industries of the country and more than 65 percent of the wage earners in the 90 industries covered.

Data for both manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries are based on reports of the number of employees and the amount of pay rolls for the pay period ending nearest the 15th of the month.

The average weekly earnings shown in table 2 are computed by dividing the weekly pay rolls in the reporting establishments by the total number of full- and part-time employees reported. As not all reporting establishments supply information on man-hours, average hours worked per week and average hourly earnings are necessarily based on data furnished by a slightly smaller number of reporting firms. Because of variation in the size and composition of the reporting sample, the average hours per week, average hourly earnings, and average weekly earnings shown may not be strictly comparable from month to month. The sample, however, is believed to be sufficiently adequate in virtually all instances to indicate the general movement of earnings and hours over the period shown. The changes from the preceding month, expressed as percentages, are based on identical lists of firms for the 2 months, but the changes from November 1940 are computed from chain indexes based on the month-to-month percentage changes.

#### **EMPLOYMENT AND PAY-ROLL INDEXES, AVERAGE HOURS, AND AVERAGE EARNINGS**

Employment and pay-roll indexes, as well as average hours worked per week, average hourly earnings, and average weekly earnings for September, October, and November 1941, where available, are pre-



sented in table 2. The September and October figures, where given, may differ in some instances from those previously published because of revisions necessitated primarily by the inclusion of late reports. Indexes of employment and pay rolls are given in table 3 for 55 additional manufacturing industries for the months of September, October, and November 1941. These indexes are based on 1939 as 100 and are available in mimeographed form for the period from January 1939 to January 1941, inclusive.

In table 4 indexes of employment and pay rolls are given for all manufacturing industries combined, for the durable- and nondurable-goods groups of manufacturing industries, and for each of 13 non-manufacturing industries, by months, from November 1940 to November 1941, inclusive. The chart on page 537 indicates the trend of factory employment and pay rolls from January 1919 to November 1941.

TABLE 2.—*Employment, Pay Rolls, Hours, and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries*

MANUFACTURING

TABLE 2.—Employment, Pay Rolls, Hours, and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries

## MANUFACTURING

<sup>1</sup>Indexes are based on 3-year average, 1929-25=100. For "all manufacturing," "durable goods," "nondurable goods," and "aluminum manufactures," they have been adjusted to preliminary 1939 census figures. The indexes for all other manufacturing groups and industries have been adjusted to 1937 census figures, except as otherwise noted, and are not comparable to indexes published in pamphlets prior to August 1939. Comparable series available upon request.

Industry	Employment index			Pay-roll index			Average weekly earnings <sup>1</sup>			Average hours worked per week <sup>1</sup>			Average hourly earnings <sup>1</sup>		
	Nov. 1941	Oct. 1941	Sept. 1941	Nov. 1941	Oct. 1941	Sept. 1941	Nov. 1941	Oct. 1941	Sept. 1941	Nov. 1941	Oct. 1941	Sept. 1941	Cents	Cents	Cents
All manufacturing <sup>2</sup>	134.7	135.4	135.2	165.2	166.8	162.6	\$32.81	\$32.92	\$32.06	40.3	41.1	40.9	78.1	77.0	76.8
Durable goods <sup>2</sup>	144.6	144.0	142.1	190.3	191.3	183.3	37.64	37.96	36.82	41.8	42.9	42.3	86.5	85.3	84.3
Nondurable goods <sup>2</sup>	125.3	127.1	128.7	137.2	139.2	139.5	26.12	26.10	25.78	38.6	39.1	39.5	68.8	68.0	66.8
<i>Durable goods</i>															
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery	136.8	139.4	140.5	172.0	173.1	170.6	36.39	36.41	35.60	40.9	41.5	40.7	88.6	87.7	87.5
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	147.8	147.9	148.9	183.2	181.1	178.4	39.06	38.63	37.81	40.0	39.9	38.9	97.7	96.9	97.1
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	168.7	169.9	170.6	253.4	246.3	255.5	36.08	35.96	34.51	43.0	44.2	42.9	83.9	81.4	80.5
Cast-iron pipe	98.3	98.0	97.8	117.9	119.1	115.8	28.74	29.16	28.42	40.8	41.3	41.4	70.2	70.0	68.3
Cutlery (not including silver and plated cutlery) and edge tools	132.5	131.6	127.9	160.7	157.7	149.5	31.77	31.55	30.68	43.9	44.5	44.2	71.3	71.7	70.2
Forgings, iron and steel	114.2	114.0	112.9	179.8	182.1	175.6	42.89	43.52	42.30	44.8	46.7	45.7	95.3	93.4	92.7
Hardware	113.4	115.2	116.0	148.2	151.5	148.7	32.32	32.29	31.49	42.1	43.1	42.1	75.4	74.9	74.4
Plumbers' supplies <sup>3</sup>	98.1	99.5	99.4	106.7	114.7	106.3	31.32	33.38	31.04	39.7	42.0	40.5	79.6	79.4	76.6
Stamped and enameled ware	224.6	227.2	227.9	288.4	296.2	290.5	30.18	30.48	29.81	40.7	41.7	41.3	74.2	73.2	72.4
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	125.1	128.4	127.4	150.1	157.7	154.9	35.96	37.00	36.64	43.4	44.9	44.8	83.4	82.6	82.0
Stoves	110.1	114.4	116.2	115.3	126.0	127.9	29.39	31.70	30.97	38.9	41.9	41.4	75.7	75.8	74.9
Structural and ornamental metalwork <sup>4</sup>	107.6	109.3	109.5	116.3	127.2	123.6	34.59	37.59	36.51	41.6	44.4	43.3	83.9	85.2	84.6
Tin cans and other tinware	135.0	130.1	145.0	165.9	156.6	187.6	27.39	26.95	28.92	38.9	41.9	42.5	70.7	64.3	68.3
Tools (not including edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	147.3	146.0	144.4	205.2	202.2	196.6	35.58	35.30	34.80	46.8	47.0	46.3	76.1	75.1	75.2
Wirowork	203.8	204.9	208.0	280.4	277.1	272.2	33.15	32.63	31.70	41.9	42.0	41.3	79.3	77.9	76.8
Machinery not including transportation equipment	181.4	180.1	178.6	255.3	246.2	248.2	38.98	39.24	38.47	44.6	45.4	45.1	86.8	86.1	85.0
Agricultural implements (including tractors)	167.5	169.9	170.7	223.9	231.6	230.7	36.72	37.12	37.12	40.1	40.7	40.5	91.9	92.3	92.0
Cash registers, adding machines, and calculating machines	177.0	174.9	172.6	223.2	233.1	230.2	39.25	41.45	41.47	43.3	44.9	45.0	91.5	92.7	92.8
Electric machinery, apparatus, and supplies	169.4	168.8	168.7	242.1	244.7	241.3	37.16	37.78	37.24	43.1	44.0	43.6	86.4	86.0	85.5
Engines, turbines, water wheels, and windmills <sup>4</sup>	352.5	339.5	325.0	676.3	615.5	572.9	50.64	47.81	46.62	47.4	47.2	46.5	106.7	101.5	100.5

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Employment, Pay Rolls, Hours, and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries—Continued*  
MANUFACTURING—Continued

Industry	Average hourly earnings <sup>1</sup>		
	Nov. 1941	Oct. 1941	Sent. 1941
<i>Durable goods—Continued</i>			
<b>Machinery, etc.—Continued</b>			
Foundry and machine-shop products	84.9	84.3	82.9
Machine tools	88.6	87.6	87.1
Radios and phonographs	70.6	70.1	60.7
Textile machinery and parts	76.8	75.9	75.4
Typewriters and parts	75.9	75.6	75.8
<b>Transportation equipment</b>			
Aircraft <sup>2</sup>	104.2	101.9	100.3
Automobiles <sup>3</sup>	90.1	86.9	84.5
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad	111.6	109.1	107.0
Locomotives <sup>4</sup>	90.7	88.5	86.8
Shipbuilding	93.5	92.0	92.3
<b>Nonferrous metals and their products</b>			
Aluminum manufactures	83.1	82.2	82.1
Brass, bronze, and copper products	87.4	85.8	85.5
Clocks and watches and time-recording devices	89.3	89.0	88.7
Jewelry	70.5	69.6	69.2
Lighting equipment	64.7	63.3	62.5
Silverware and plated ware	81.0	81.1	83.1
Smelting and refining—copper, lead and zinc	76.4	75.5	76.3
<b>Lumber and allied products</b>			
Furniture	60.2	58.8	59.0
Lumber	64.0	62.6	61.7
Millwork	62.5	61.9	61.1
Sawmills	57.3	57.8	57.2
<b>Stone, clay, and glass products</b>			
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	74.9	74.4	73.6
Cement	65.7	65.5	65.3
Glass	78.7	78.2	78.7
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	84.3	83.6	81.2
Pottery	72.0	72.4	73.1
	69.9	69.5	69.1
<i>Nondurable goods</i>			
<b>Textiles and their products</b>			
Fabrics	87.9	86.1	86.0
Carpets and rugs	56.7	56.6	55.1
Cotton goods	74.9	73.3	73.6
Cotton small wares	50.4	50.3	48.3
Knitwear	57.4	56.3	56.1
Knitted underwear	56.7	56.4	55.1
Knitwear	54.5	53.8	52.0
Knitted cloth	69.4	68.9	68.5
Silk and rayon goods	60.2	61.0	60.2

# TIGHT

# BIG

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Cotton goods	55.7	56.6	55.6	55.7
Cotton annual warp	73.3	73.3	73.3	73.3
Fabric, cotton, rayon, and textile	58.3	58.3	58.3	58.3
Knitted underwear	67.2	67.2	67.2	67.2
Silk and rayon goods	65.1	65.1	65.1	65.1
Woolen and worsted goods	74.0	74.0	74.0	74.0
Wearing apparel	59.4	59.4	59.4	59.4
Clothing, men's	50.3	50.3	50.3	50.3
Clothing, women's	67.2	67.2	67.2	67.2
Corsets and allied garments	61.5	61.5	61.5	61.5
Men's furnishings	67.4	67.4	67.4	67.4
Millinery	64.1	64.1	64.1	64.1
Shirts and collars	66.0	66.0	66.0	66.0
Leather and its manufactures	59.6	59.6	59.6	59.6
Boots and shoes	60.9	60.9	60.9	60.9
Leather	65.4	65.4	65.4	65.4
Food and kindred products	54.5	54.5	54.5	54.5
Baking	61.0	61.0	61.0	61.0
Beverages	60.2	60.2	60.2	60.2
Butter	75.3	75.3	75.3	75.3
Canning and preserving	57.4	57.4	57.4	57.4
Flour	69.5	69.5	69.5	69.5
Ice cream	67.5	67.5	67.5	67.5
Slaughtering and meat packing	67.8	67.8	67.8	67.8
Sugar, beet	70.3	70.3	70.3	70.3
Sugar refining, cane	65.3	65.3	65.3	65.3
Tobacco manufactures	53.2	53.2	53.2	53.2
Chewing and smoking tobacco and snuff	58.1	58.1	58.1	58.1
Cigars and cigarettes	52.7	52.7	52.7	52.7
Paper and printing	84.3	84.3	84.3	84.3
Boxes, paper	83.5	83.5	83.5	83.5
Paper and pulp	62.5	62.5	62.5	62.5
Printing and publishing:				
Book and Job	84.3	84.3	84.3	84.3
Newspapers and periodicals	108.6	108.6	108.6	108.6
Chemical, petroleum, and coal products	86.0	86.0	86.0	86.0
Petroleum refining	87.4	87.4	87.4	87.4
Other than petroleum refining	109.7	109.7	109.7	109.7
Chemicals	93.5	93.5	93.5	93.5
Cottonseed—oil, cake, and meal	94.8	94.8	94.8	94.8
Drugists' preparations	65.4	65.4	65.4	65.4
Explosives	93.2	93.2	93.2	93.2
Fertilizers	90.2	90.2	90.2	90.2
Paints and varnishes	50.1	50.1	50.1	50.1
Rayon and allied products	80.9	80.9	80.9	80.9
Sap	77.3	77.3	77.3	77.3
Rubber products	81.5	81.5	81.5	81.5
Rubber boots and shoes	83.2	83.2	83.2	83.2
Rubber tires and inner tubes	74.2	74.2	74.2	74.2
Rubber goods, other	106.0	106.0	106.0	106.0

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Employment, Pay Rolls, Hours, and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries—Continued*

Industry	Employment index			Pay-roll index			Average weekly earnings <sup>1</sup>			Average hours worked per week <sup>1</sup>			Average hourly earnings <sup>1</sup>		
	Nov. 1941	Oct. 1941	Sept. 1941	Nov. 1941	Oct. 1941	Sept. 1941	Nov. 1941	Oct. 1941	Sept. 1941	Nov. 1941	Oct. 1941	Sept. 1941	Nov. 1941	Oct. 1941	Sept. 1941
<b>Durable goods—Continued</b>															
Machinery, etc.—Continued															
Foundry and machine-shop products	148.8	147.8	147.0	191.4	194.7	187.8	\$38.00	\$38.84	\$37.77	44.6	46.0	45.4	84.9	84.3	82.9
Machine tools	396.9	361.5	356.8	599.1	596.3	578.2	45.17	45.54	44.74	51.0	52.0	51.4	88.6	87.6	87.1
Radios and phonographs	217.8	217.0	212.5	267.2	261.7	254.4	30.09	29.42	29.25	42.6	41.9	42.1	70.6	70.1	69.7
Textile machinery and parts	109.0	109.2	108.5	141.3	142.3	141.1	35.71	35.84	35.92	46.2	47.0	47.6	76.8	75.9	75.4
Typewriters and parts	161.8	160.7	158.2	232.3	233.4	233.6	35.50	35.52	35.56	47.2	47.0	47.6	75.4	75.8	75.3
Transportation equipment <sup>4</sup>	210.3	203.2	190.9	287.8	282.6	258.6	42.93	43.69	41.73	41.4	43.0	41.7	104.2	101.9	100.3
Automobiles <sup>5</sup>	9,174.5	9,174.8	8,515.7	13,204.6	12,301.6	11,145.8	39.81	38.19	44.3	45.2	45.6	90.1	86.9	84.5	84.5
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad	120.7	128.9	124.1	175.9	176.6	159.3	43.84	44.32	41.72	39.3	40.7	38.7	111.6	109.1	107.9
Locomotives <sup>6</sup>	96.1	111.7	111.1	101.7	101.1	101.7	36.74	37.69	33.80	40.2	42.6	38.9	96.7	88.7	87.7
Shipbuilding	77.0	74.7	72.2	105.8	102.9	98.5	42.00	42.12	41.68	44.9	45.8	45.2	93.5	92.0	92.3
Nonferrous metals and their products	332.2	494.6	442.5	827.1	803.4	703.8	45.62	47.84	46.82	42.5	45.4	44.8	107.6	105.9	104.3
Aluminum manufactures <sup>7</sup>	145.7	147.5	146.2	181.5	185.7	185.5	34.66	35.23	41.6	42.7	43.1	83.1	82.9	82.9	82.9
Brass, bronze, and copper products	233.4	241.6	243.1	364.7	354.8	354.8	37.15	36.41	36.27	42.5	42.4	42.4	85.8	85.8	85.5
Clocks and watches and time-recording devices	191.3	193.4	193.5	260.6	267.6	270.8	37.71	38.24	38.65	42.3	43.1	43.8	89.3	89.0	88.7
Jewelry	116.1	117.8	111.3	155.0	160.6	148.8	29.64	30.10	29.54	42.1	42.1	42.7	70.5	69.6	69.2
Lighting equipment	119.8	121.0	120.1	115.5	122.4	121.4	25.64	27.03	27.04	40.9	43.6	43.6	64.7	63.3	62.5
Silversware and plated ware	86.5	87.1	85.8	102.2	102.9	103.7	32.35	34.38	36.20	39.0	42.4	43.6	81.1	83.1	83.1
Smelting and refining—copper, lead and zinc	100.3	101.2	102.9	120.8	120.1	118.1	33.92	34.41	35.10	45.2	45.7	46.4	76.4	75.5	76.3
Brick and allied products	77.7	78.7	80.4	86.5	92.4	90.8	24.21	25.90	24.47	38.1	41.1	41.1	86.2	84.5	82.6
Furniture	108.4	107.4	107.6	118.8	120.6	118.0	26.07	26.07	26.03	41.0	42.8	42.3	64.0	59.8	59.0
Lumber	75.5	76.8	76.4	71.0	74.9	72.9	26.05	26.91	26.17	41.6	43.4	42.6	62.5	61.9	61.1
Millwork	66.3	69.4	70.4	70.3	78.3	77.5	21.86	23.25	22.72	38.1	40.2	39.7	57.3	57.8	57.2
Sawmills	101.5	102.1	101.8	106.1	108.4	105.4	28.67	28.48	28.28	37.8	39.2	38.9	74.9	74.4	73.6
Stone, clay, and glass products	76.2	77.7	79.1	72.9	76.2	76.2	25.11	25.71	26.71	38.1	39.2	38.7	65.7	65.5	65.3
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	82.5	82.3	83.8	91.5	93.3	93.3	31.25	32.16	31.64	39.7	41.1	40.2	78.7	78.2	78.7
Cement	133.3	132.4	130.3	169.3	173.7	160.5	31.20	32.16	30.19	37.1	38.6	37.3	84.3	83.6	81.2
Glass	45.5	46.6	45.9	34.5	37.4	36.8	26.63	28.18	28.06	38.8	38.8	38.5	72.0	72.4	73.1
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	123.6	124.0	121.0	127.9	130.8	124.8	26.34	26.93	26.09	37.5	37.5	37.9	69.9	69.5	69.1
<i>Nondurable goods</i>															
Textiles and their products	113.2	114.7	115.5	118.1	122.3	123.4	21.60	21.94	21.73	37.1	37.6	38.3	57.9	56.1	56.0
Fabrics	105.0	106.2	106.3	118.7	120.1	118.0	21.69	21.81	21.38	38.4	39.8	39.0	56.7	55.1	55.1
Carpets and rugs	90.0	91.5	91.0	93.8	93.6	93.6	28.69	28.58	29.33	38.4	39.8	39.0	74.9	73.3	73.6
Cotton goods	111.1	110.0	110.2	134.0	135.8	130.2	19.60	19.76	19.12	22.01	23.04	23.15	50.4	50.3	48.3
Cotton small wares	100.1	102.0	102.7	127.9	127.9	128.0	22.01	22.01	22.01	23.15	24.03	24.15	67.5	66.3	65.3
All apparel and furnishings to station	132.1	132.5	132.4	136.0	136.0	136.0	24.45	24.45	24.45	24.45	24.45	24.45	40.9	41.5	40.9
Knitted underwear	88.3	88.3	88.3	88.0	87.3	86.7	148.4	148.4	148.4	148.4	148.4	148.4	39.0	38.7	38.7
Knitted undergarments	115.8	115.2	116.1	139.7	143.4	141.6	148.4	148.4	148.4	148.4	148.4	148.4	56.4	56.2	56.2
Knitted cloth	61.3	61.9	63.2	60.9	61.6	61.6	152.6	152.6	152.6	152.6	152.6	152.6	53.8	53.8	53.8
Silk and rayon goods	100.4	100.6	110.0	124.7	126.7	129.2	124.7	124.7	124.7	124.7	124.7	124.7	39.0	39.0	39.0
All apparel and furnishings to station	132.1	132.5	132.4	136.0	136.0	136.0	24.45	24.45	24.45	24.45	24.45	24.45	45.4	45.4	45.4

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Cotton goods	100.0	110.2	134.0	135.8	136.2	137.6
Almond and nut products	100.0	107.7	127.9	128.2	128.2	128.3
Apparel and finishing textiles	100.0	136.0	136.2	136.4	136.4	136.4
Knitted underwear	80.3	82.3	97.3	98.6	99.7	100.8
Knitted cloth	88.1	88.4	139.7	148.4	156.6	156.8
Silk and rayon goods	146.5	151.2	161.1	166.8	172.7	178.7
Woolen and worsted goods	61.3	61.9	63.2	66.5	71.5	72.3
Wearing apparel	109.4	109.6	120.7	126.7	129.2	132.7
Clothing, men's <sup>4</sup>	124.8	129.0	131.3	136.5	146.7	156.5
Clothing, women's	121.0	123.4	123.7	125.9	145.2	177.5
Corsets and allied garments	121.2	122.6	148.8	142.9	150.9	20.40
Boots and shoes	121.2	111.5	122.6	131.5	156.5	166.8
Men's furnishings	130.0	133.6	133.6	140.3	159.6	184.2
Millinery	61.3	77.2	85.3	124.7	126.3	20.06
Shirts and collars	137.0	137.1	136.4	136.4	136.4	136.4
Leather and its manufactures	66.7	68.5	68.9	88.9	101.0	23.16
Boots and shoes	92.3	94.7	95.2	98.3	93.3	95.3
Leather	97.7	97.0	117.8	116.4	114.2	30.40
Baking	145.7	152.4	162.7	157.6	162.9	170.1
Beverages	153.7	154.5	153.5	159.7	157.6	157.4
Butter	290.9	302.6	315.1	360.9	381.3	401.5
Canning and preserving	102.8	102.4	106.4	106.4	96.8	96.6
Confectionery	162.2	218.4	321.6	172.5	244.4	359.1
Flour	110.0	106.3	101.5	125.6	122.0	114.8
Ice cream	78.9	80.1	80.6	83.0	88.3	92.5
Slaughtering and meat packing	129.7	125.9	123.6	133.5	151.0	154.8
Sugar, beet	265.4	244.5	90.5	308.3	229.1	95.2
Sugar refining, cane	97.0	103.3	103.3	89.7	93.9	103.3
Tobacco manufactures	68.4	67.3	63.9	77.1	75.6	70.4
Chewing and smoking tobacco and snuff	54.8	54.3	53.6	71.5	70.8	68.3
Cigars and cigarettes	70.0	69.0	65.2	77.6	76.0	70.4
Paper and printing	196.6	166.5	144.9	137.4	135.9	133.3
Boxes, paper	146.7	146.8	144.7	193.5	194.5	187.9
Paper and pulp	128.6	128.2	128.4	166.7	165.2	163.0
Printing and publishing:						
Book and Job	108.1	104.8	104.5	102.6	99.3	33.46
Newspapers and periodicals	118.1	118.1	116.9	116.4	114.0	40.10
Chemical, petroleum and coal products	147.7	146.1	146.4	149.2	186.7	166.4
Petroleum refining	129.2	128.5	167.8	168.0	176.1	192.9
Other than petroleum refining	152.3	152.7	150.7	202.3	197.9	33.46
Chemicals	184.9	183.4	182.4	264.6	261.0	250.9
Cottonseed—oil, cake, and meal	123.0	134.6	114.4	132.8	144.0	113.9
Druggists' preparations	148.2	145.6	142.9	180.2	183.4	(0)
Explosives	(0)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(0)
Fertilizers	101.2	103.6	110.2	99.1	102.7	111.6
Paints and varnishes	142.7	144.0	143.9	171.7	173.7	169.9
Rayon and allied products	323.2	325.0	327.0	386.4	374.3	30.46
Soap	96.5	97.7	98.2	138.5	142.2	139.6
Rubber products	111.6	111.6	111.5	141.0	138.1	134.8
Rubber boots and shoes	81.7	80.4	77.2	110.4	106.9	104.1
Rubber tires and inner tubes	86.5	86.0	86.5	117.6	111.8	107.3
Rubber goods, other	190.0	192.6	193.2	228.6	234.4	231.6

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—Employment, Pay Rolls, Hours, and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries—Continued.

Industry	Employment index			Pay-roll index			Average weekly earnings <sup>1</sup>			Average hours worked per week <sup>1</sup>			Average hourly earnings <sup>1</sup>		
	Nov. 1941	Oct. 1941	Sept. 1941	Nov. 1941	Oct. 1941	Sept. 1941	Nov. 1941	Oct. 1941	Sept. 1941	Nov. 1941	Oct. 1941	Sept. 1941	Nov. 1941	Oct. 1941	Sept. 1941
Coal mining:															
Anthracite <sup>10 11</sup>	50.2	50.3	50.0	41.8	49.2	49.6	\$27.38	\$22.12	\$22.60	27.2	31.9	33.4	100.7	100.6	98.2
Bituminous <sup>10</sup>	95.5	95.3	94.2	116.5	122.6	115.5	32.46	34.27	32.75	31.3	33.0	31.5	104.2	103.8	103.4
Metaliferous mining <sup>12</sup>	79.3	79.7	79.4	90.3	88.3	85.9	35.84	34.86	34.04	42.5	42.6	41.6	84.6	82.2	82.1
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	52.8	54.1	54.2	57.5	61.5	60.5	27.68	28.88	28.07	42.0	44.0	43.6	66.3	65.9	64.3
Crude-petroleum production <sup>13</sup>	61.0	61.6	61.8	62.5	64.4	64.4	37.58	38.39	38.28	36.9	38.7	38.5	98.9	96.8	96.2
Public utilities:															
Telephone and telegraph <sup>14 15</sup>	90.0	90.6	90.3	116.0	117.0	117.3	31.47	31.63	31.75	39.4	39.7	40.3	80.4	79.7	79.3
Electric light and power <sup>14 15</sup>	93.5	94.1	94.9	114.5	115.7	115.0	37.36	37.50	36.81	39.8	40.6	40.0	94.0	92.9	92.5
Street railways and busses <sup>14 15</sup>	70.4	70.3	70.3	78.6	78.4	78.1	36.39	36.32	36.20	46.3	46.4	46.4	77.5	77.0	77.1
Trade:															
Wholesale <sup>14 17</sup>	96.6	96.3	95.6	92.2	92.0	90.9	33.48	33.48	33.48	33.28	40.8	41.3	41.0	81.8	81.2
Retail <sup>14 18</sup>	102.9	101.0	100.0	98.1	97.3	95.8	21.78	22.07	22.11	42.1	42.1	42.4	57.8	57.6	56.8
Food <sup>15</sup>	111.8	110.7	109.7	109.9	107.0	105.8	24.94	24.64	24.80	41.6	41.8	42.5	57.4	56.6	56.6
General merchandising <sup>14 16</sup>	124.5	116.4	111.7	116.8	110.9	106.6	18.36	18.69	18.83	38.4	38.4	38.9	48.1	48.5	47.8
Apparel <sup>19</sup>	98.8	97.4	94.9	94.5	93.1	90.3	22.22	22.21	22.19	37.6	37.8	37.8	59.8	59.3	58.7
Furniture <sup>15</sup>	78.4	80.3	79.5	73.9	82.6	77.9	29.43	31.35	30.51	43.8	44.1	44.1	71.0	71.0	71.6
Automotive <sup>15</sup>	86.0	87.5	89.7	86.8	86.3	86.3	30.67	29.67	28.83	46.4	47.2	46.8	67.2	63.7	62.3
Lumber <sup>15</sup>	81.3	82.4	83.4	83.1	86.4	87.1	28.33	29.04	28.84	41.9	43.5	43.0	68.5	67.9	68.2
Hotels (year-round) <sup>10 14 18</sup>	96.3	96.2	95.7	93.8	91.9	90.0	16.83	16.83	16.90	45.0	45.3	45.4	36.5	36.0	35.6
Laundries <sup>19</sup>	109.0	111.2	113.0	101.9	103.4	105.2	19.42	19.31	19.33	42.6	42.9	43.3	45.9	45.3	44.9
Dyeing and cleaning <sup>19</sup>	117.2	121.2	121.5	92.8	98.5	99.5	22.01	22.56	22.69	42.6	43.8	44.7	63.1	52.9	51.9
Brokerage <sup>14 19 20</sup>	-1.3	-6	-1.2	-1.2	-8	(n)	-	-	-	(n)	(n)	(n)	(n)	(n)	(n)
Insurance <sup>14 15</sup>	+1.1	-1.2	-1.2	-1.3	+1.4	+1.4	-	-	-	(n)	(n)	(n)	(n)	(n)	(n)
Building construction <sup>19</sup>	-2.8	-1.3	-1.6	-5.1	-2.8	+1.3	35.93	36.50	37.10	35.7	36.5	36.5	103.9	102.3	101.7
Water transportation <sup>21</sup>	77.4	77.6	78.5	(n)	(n)	(n)	(n)	(n)	(n)	(n)	(n)	(n)	(n)	(n)	(n)
Class I steam railroads <sup>22</sup>	117.8	119.3	118.7	(n)	(n)	(n)	(n)	(n)	(n)	(n)	(n)	(n)	(n)	(n)	(n)

<sup>1</sup> Minigraphed sheets giving averages by years, 1932 to 1939, inclusive, and by month in January 1938 issue of pamphlet. Comparable series back to January 1929 presented in indexes adjusted to 1935 census. <sup>2</sup> Average hours and averages for class I railroads, which are based on 1935-39 as 100.

<sup>11</sup> See table of October 1940, "Employment and Pay Rolls" for revised employment and pay-roll indexes, average hours worked per week, average hourly earnings, and number of establishments whose data supplied by a smaller number of firms.

<sup>1</sup> Mimeographed sheets giving averages by years, 1932 to 1939, inclusive, and by month from January 1938 to August 1940, inclusive, available on request. Average hours and average hourly earnings are computed from data supplied by a smaller number of establishments than the average weekly earnings, as not all reporting firms furnish man-hours. The figures are not strictly comparable from month to month because of changes in the size and composition of the reporting sample.

<sup>2</sup> See tables 9, 10, and 11 in the December 1940 issue of "Employment and Pay Rolls" for comparable series back to January 1919 for all manufacturing and back to January 1923 for the durable- and nondurable-goods groups.

<sup>3</sup> See table 7 in the April 1941 issue of "Employment and Pay Rolls" for revised figures from January 1940 to March 1941.

<sup>4</sup> Revisions in the following industries have been made as indicated:  
*Structural and ornamental metalwork.*—August 1941 pay-roll index to 125.2; average hourly and average weekly earnings to 83.7 cents and \$26.92 respectively.  
*Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies.*—August 1941 average hourly and weekly earnings to 88.1 cents and \$37.41.

*Engines, turbines, water wheels, and windmills.*—July and August 1941 employment indexes to 208.3 and 314.7; pay-roll indexes to 507.0 and 546.2; average hourly earnings to 97.7 and 98.6 cents; average weekly earnings to \$45.02 and \$45.94; August average hours to 46.1.

*Clothing, men's.*—August 1941 pay-roll index to 113.6; average hourly and weekly earnings to 64.4 cents and \$23.50.

<sup>5</sup> Adjusted on basis of a complete employment survey of the aircraft industry made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics for August 1940. Not comparable with previous published Indexes from January 1939 to August 1940, inclusive. Comparable figures for this period given in table 9 of the September 1940 issue of "Employment and Pay Rolls," later census figures because of problems involving integrated industries.

<sup>6</sup> The Indexes for "Automobiles" have been adjusted to 1933 census figures, but not to later census figures because of problems involving integrated industries.

<sup>7</sup> See footnote 7 in table 5 of October 1941 "Employment and Pay Rolls" for revised employment and pay-roll indexes, average hours worked per week, average hourly earnings, and average weekly earnings in locomotives, August 1940 to July 1941 inclusive.

<sup>8</sup> See table 8 in March 1941 "Employment and Pay Rolls" pamphlet for revised figures from January 1935 to February 1941.

<sup>9</sup> Not available.

<sup>10</sup> Indexes adjusted to 1935 census. Comparable series back to January 1929 presented in January 1938 issue of pamphlet.

<sup>11</sup> See table 7 of October 1940 "Employment and Pay Rolls" for revised employment and pay-roll indexes, average hours worked per week, average hourly earnings, and average weekly earnings in anthracite mining, February 1940 to September 1940, inclusive.

<sup>12</sup> See table 7 of February 1941 pamphlet for revised figures for metalliferous mining from January 1938 to January 1941, inclusive.

<sup>13</sup> Does not include well-drilling or rig-building.

<sup>14</sup> Average weekly earnings, hourly earnings, and hours not comparable with figures published in pamphlets prior to January 1938 as they now exclude corporation officers, executives, and other employees whose duties are mainly supervisory.

<sup>15</sup> Retail-trade indexes adjusted to 1935 census and public-utility indexes to 1937 census.

<sup>16</sup> Not comparable to indexes published in pamphlets prior to January 1940 or in *Monthly Labor Review* prior to April 1940, with but one exception, retail furniture, which has been revised since publication of July 1940 pamphlet back to January 1936. Comparable series for earlier months available upon request.

<sup>17</sup> Covers street-railways and trolley and motorbus operations of subsidiary, affiliated, and successor companies; formerly "Electric-railroad and motorbus operation and maintenance."

<sup>18</sup> Indexes adjusted to 1933 census. Comparable series in November 1934 and subsequent issues of "Employment and Pay Rolls."

<sup>19</sup> Cash payments only; additional value of board, room, and tips not included.

<sup>20</sup> Indexes of employment and pay rolls are not available; percentage changes from preceding month substituted.

<sup>21</sup> See note 18 in table 10 in the July 1941 issue of "Employment and Pay Rolls" for revised average weekly earnings in the brokerage industry from January 1939 to January 1941.

<sup>22</sup> Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

<sup>23</sup> Based on estimates prepared by the United States Maritime Commission covering employment on steam and motor merchant vessels of 1,000 gross tons or over in deep-sea trades only.

<sup>24</sup> Preliminary source—Interstate Commerce Commission.

TABLE 3.—Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls in 55 Additional Manufacturing Industries

[12-month average 1939=100]

Industry	Employment			Pay rolls		
	Nov. 1941	Oct. 1941	Sept. 1941	Nov. 1941	Oct. 1941	Sept. 1941
Iron and steel group:						
Metal doors and shutters	144.0	148.3	148.0	197.3	219.0	196.9
Firearms	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Screw-machine products	209.3	207.9	203.2	294.7	293.8	281.8
Wire drawing	138.2	140.3	140.6	174.3	173.1	172.0
Wrought pipe not made in rolling mills	152.7	159.6	158.0	194.2	204.4	194.4
Steel barrels, kegs, and drums	144.4	147.2	140.4	180.0	190.7	186.6
Machinery group:						
Machine-tool accessories	251.1	246.9	241.0	339.1	330.7	323.2
Pumps	207.1	203.3	197.7	319.7	312.8	301.8
Refrigerators and refrigerating apparatus	105.9	121.4	127.6	116.0	141.5	147.4
Sewing machines	136.9	136.8	134.7	215.2	220.3	212.7
Washing machines, wringers, and driers	118.8	116.3	126.5	140.6	140.7	142.4
Transportation-equipment group:						
Motorcycles, bicycles, and parts	169.2	169.4	166.9	210.5	216.6	205.4
Nonferrous metals group:						
Sheet-metal work	145.7	149.5	149.3	181.5	189.1	189.8
Smelting and refining of scrap metal	148.8	156.5	155.1	181.0	194.4	186.3
Lumber group:						
Caskets and morticians goods	105.0	105.3	104.8	118.8	120.1	117.1
Wood preserving	120.0	123.1	124.7	158.5	160.9	158.2
Wood turned and shaped <sup>1</sup>	110.8	107.8	112.3	138.9	141.4	137.9
Wooden boxes, other than cigar	125.5	127.9	125.3	163.9	170.9	162.0
Mattresses and bed springs	123.7	128.8	130.7	138.3	161.7	165.4
Stone, clay, and glass products group:						
Abrasive wheels	193.5	193.7	190.8	248.8	257.8	247.5
Asbestos products	142.0	144.2	145.9	189.9	195.2	195.7
Lime	118.9	121.0	123.2	148.9	161.8	160.8
Gypsum	123.1	126.3	128.3	155.3	165.7	171.6
Glass products made from purchased glass	146.2	136.7	146.9	177.8	167.9	169.5
Wallboard and plaster, except gypsum	140.7	140.8	140.3	165.7	166.3	167.4
Textiles:						
Textile bags	114.3	117.7	115.7	127.0	137.3	136.5
Cordage and twine	142.9	142.4	138.6	195.3	193.6	186.3
Curtains, draperies, and bedspreads	106.0	112.4	114.9	144.6	158.0	172.2
Housefurnishings, other	132.9	142.2	145.8	158.9	176.6	178.9
Jute goods, except felt	126.6	128.9	116.5	176.2	174.5	155.8
Handkerchiefs	106.2	108.6	108.8	138.9	144.5	137.7
Leather group:						
Boot and shoe cut stock and findings	102.1	104.9	106.7	121.2	125.8	128.4
Leather gloves and mittens	148.4	154.1	148.4	177.5	195.8	191.3
Trunks and suitcases	191.9	180.5	171.4	214.0	204.1	187.3
Food group:						
Cereal preparations	110.2	116.6	118.4	129.2	128.0	139.5
Condensed and evaporated milk	123.5	124.4	124.4	141.8	146.3	144.2
Feeds, prepared	114.4	113.7	112.7	133.7	136.5	135.5
Paper and printing group:						
Paper bags	129.1	129.3	131.7	150.7	160.7	161.4
Envelopes	123.0	123.1	121.7	137.6	136.6	136.9
Paper goods, not elsewhere classified	128.7	128.7	130.0	149.2	152.3	151.0
Bookbinding	111.8	117.0	116.9	133.5	143.2	148.6
Lithographing	108.0	108.3	108.7	116.3	117.9	123.3
Chemical, petroleum, and coal products group:						
Ammunition	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Compressed and liquefied gases	140.8	140.5	139.0	165.6	162.3	154.8
Perfumes and cosmetics	123.6	121.8	114.9	141.1	140.5	125.2
Coke-oven products	122.6	124.3	124.9	144.9	147.4	146.1
Paving materials	109.7	113.6	126.6	132.4	139.2	138.0
Roofing materials	129.5	129.6	133.0	162.6	164.9	161.0
Miscellaneous group:						
Chemical fire extinguishers	323.4	319.4	326.2	492.6	471.3	483.3
Buttons	121.2	121.0	120.2	159.0	156.9	151.5
Instruments, professional, scientific, and commercial	222.3	218.1	200.3	287.7	280.2	249.5
Optical goods	182.6	177.1	174.3	230.0	215.2	208.5
Photographic apparatus	124.8	124.9	126.2	160.6	162.3	159.9
Pianos, organs, and parts	130.4	130.7	129.5	163.1	159.6	151.4
Toys, games, and playground equipment	133.9	139.7	144.3	153.9	157.8	155.4

<sup>1</sup> Not available.<sup>2</sup> July and August employment indexes have been revised to 117.2 and 113.6.

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TABLE 4.—Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls in Selected Manufacturing<sup>1</sup> and Nonmanufacturing<sup>2</sup> Industries, November 1940 to November 1941

Industry	1940			1941										
	Av.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.
<b>Manufacturing</b>														
All industries.....	107.5	114.7	116.2	115.5	117.8	119.9	122.6	124.9	127.9	130.6	133.1	135.2	135.4	134.7
Durable goods <sup>3</sup> .....	104.3	115.5	117.7	118.3	121.0	123.7	127.7	131.3	135.1	137.6	138.7	142.1	144.0	144.6
Nondurable goods <sup>4</sup> .....	110.6	113.8	114.8	112.7	114.7	116.3	117.8	118.8	121.1	123.9	127.7	128.7	127.1	125.3
<b>Nonmanufacturing</b>														
Anthracite mining <sup>5</sup> .....	50.7	50.4	50.8	50.3	50.6	50.2	48.7	48.6	49.2	49.3	50.0	50.0	50.3	50.2
Bituminous-coal mining <sup>5</sup> .....	88.0	89.8	90.1	90.2	90.6	91.1	23.5	87.9	88.1	90.3	92.6	94.2	95.3	95.5
Metaliferous mining <sup>6</sup> .....	69.9	72.5	72.2	72.5	73.4	74.3	77.2	77.1	78.9	79.0	79.9	79.4	79.7	79.3
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining.....	45.3	47.2	45.4	41.7	42.4	44.2	48.2	51.0	51.9	52.7	53.9	54.2	54.1	52.8
Crude-petroleum production.....	62.9	61.3	60.7	60.3	60.4	60.2	60.1	60.3	61.5	62.1	62.2	61.8	61.6	61.0
Telephone and telegraph <sup>7</sup> .....	77.9	79.2	79.7	80.4	80.9	81.8	83.2	84.6	86.3	88.3	89.6	90.3	90.6	90.0
Electric light and power <sup>7</sup> .....	91.1	91.8	91.3	90.5	90.1	90.3	91.3	92.2	93.5	94.6	95.2	94.9	94.1	93.5
Street railways and busses <sup>7</sup> .....	68.5	68.7	68.4	68.3	68.0	68.2	68.3	68.9	69.1	69.5	69.7	70.3	70.3	70.4
Wholesale trade.....	90.4	91.8	92.5	91.2	91.4	91.8	92.4	92.2	93.8	94.2	95.8	95.6	96.3	96.6
Retail trade <sup>7</sup> .....	92.3	96.3	108.1	90.5	90.7	92.5	97.8	96.1	97.8	96.7	96.9	100.0	101.0	102.9
Year-round hotels <sup>8</sup> .....	92.0	92.3	92.6	93.9	93.9	94.2	95.2	96.3	95.0	94.5	94.5	95.7	96.2	96.3
Laundries <sup>8</sup> .....	99.5	99.7	100.3	101.4	101.1	102.5	104.9	108.3	112.0	115.8	114.6	113.0	111.2	109.0
Dyeing and cleaning <sup>8</sup> .....	104.7	106.0	103.3	101.0	101.4	104.4	117.2	120.6	122.7	121.7	118.9	121.5	121.2	117.2
<b>Pay rolls</b>														
All industries.....	105.4	116.4	122.4	120.7	126.8	131.2	134.7	144.1	152.2	152.7	158.1	162.6	166.8	165.2
Durable goods <sup>3</sup> .....	107.8	125.1	131.7	132.0	139.3	144.6	149.9	163.1	173.9	172.2	177.6	183.3	191.3	190.3
Nondurable goods <sup>4</sup> .....	102.7	106.6	112.1	108.1	112.9	116.3	117.7	122.9	127.9	130.7	136.3	139.5	139.2	137.2
<b>Nonmanufacturing</b>														
Anthracite mining <sup>5</sup> .....	38.5	37.6	42.7	38.5	45.2	42.4	24.3	33.4	51.2	34.8	51.1	49.6	49.2	41.8
Bituminous-coal mining <sup>5</sup> .....	81.2	84.5	91.4	87.8	90.8	93.8	15.5	103.4	107.2	105.4	117.3	115.5	122.6	116.5
Metaliferous mining <sup>6</sup> .....	66.7	69.8	72.8	70.4	71.8	72.7	78.9	81.5	85.3	79.3	85.4	85.9	88.3	90.3
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining.....	40.5	42.3	42.4	36.9	38.2	40.3	47.0	53.2	55.7	55.5	59.3	60.5	61.5	57.5
Crude-petroleum production.....	58.2	56.8	55.9	55.7	57.3	56.1	57.8	58.6	59.9	61.4	61.5	64.4	64.4	62.5
Telephone and telegraph <sup>7</sup> .....	100.2	103.2	103.5	103.9	104.3	106.4	107.3	110.5	113.0	115.7	116.4	117.3	117.0	116.0
Electric light and power <sup>7</sup> .....	104.8	106.9	106.0	105.1	105.4	106.1	107.6	109.6	111.4	113.5	115.1	115.0	115.7	114.5
Street railways and busses <sup>7</sup> .....	70.4	70.3	73.1	70.7	71.0	72.5	72.0	72.7	76.2	75.8	78.6	78.1	78.4	78.6
Wholesale trade.....	79.0	80.7	83.4	80.5	81.4	82.0	83.4	84.6	88.4	88.0	89.8	90.9	92.0	92.2
Retail trade <sup>7</sup> .....	84.2	87.1	97.3	83.7	84.6	86.2	91.7	91.5	95.2	94.0	94.0	95.8	97.3	98.1
Year-round hotels <sup>8</sup> .....	82.4	83.6	84.1	84.1	86.1	85.7	87.1	87.9	87.4	87.6	88.2	90.0	91.9	93.8
Laundries <sup>8</sup> .....	87.7	87.2	89.2	89.8	89.7	90.9	95.8	98.7	102.5	106.7	104.7	105.2	103.4	101.9
Dyeing and cleaning <sup>8</sup> .....	78.2	77.8	75.8	73.3	74.4	77.2	97.8	96.1	98.4	96.4	92.1	99.5	98.5	92.8

<sup>1</sup> 3-year average 1923-25=100—adjusted to Preliminary 1939 Census of Manufactures. See tables 9, 10, and 11 of December 1940 "Employment and Pay Rolls" for comparable figures back to January 1919 for "All manufacturing" and January 1923 for "Durable goods" and "Nondurable goods."

<sup>2</sup> 12-month average for 1929=100. Comparable indexes for wholesale trade, quarrying, metal mining, and crude-petroleum production are in November 1934 and subsequent issues of "Employment and Pay Rolls" or in February 1935 and subsequent issues of Monthly Labor Review. For other nonmanufacturing indexes see notes 5, 6, and 7.

<sup>3</sup> Includes: Iron and steel, machinery, transportation equipment, nonferrous metals, lumber and allied products, and stone, clay, and glass products.

<sup>4</sup> Includes: Textiles and their products, leather and its manufactures, food and kindred products, tobacco manufactures, paper and printing, chemicals and allied products, products of petroleum and coal, rubber products, and a number of miscellaneous industries not included in other groups.

<sup>5</sup> Indexes have been adjusted to the 1935 census. Comparable series from January 1929 forward are presented in January 1938 and subsequent issues of the pamphlet. See also table 7 of October 1940 pamphlet for revised figures for anthracite mining, February to September 1940.

<sup>6</sup> See table 7 of February 1941 pamphlet for revised indexes January 1938 to January 1941.

<sup>7</sup> Retail-trade indexes adjusted to 1935 census and public utility indexes to 1937 census. Not comparable with indexes published in Employment and Pay Rolls pamphlets prior to January 1940 or in Monthly Labor Review prior to April 1940. Comparable series January 1929 to December 1939 available in mimeographed form.

<sup>8</sup> Covers street railways and trolley and motorbus operations of subsidiary, affiliated, and successor companies.

## UNEMPLOYMENT IN DECEMBER 1941

PERSONS unemployed in December 1941 numbered 3,800,000, or 7.0 percent of the civilian labor force, according to the WPA monthly unemployment survey. This compares with 7,100,000, or 13.3 percent of the labor force in December 1940.

TABLE 1.—*Estimated Civilian Labor Force, Employment, and Unemployment, by Months, April 1940—December 1941*

Month and year	Estimated number (millions of persons)			Month and year	Estimated number (millions of persons)		
	Labor force	Em-ployed	Unem-ployed <sup>1</sup>		Labor force	Em-ployed	Unem-ployed
<i>1940</i>			<i>1941</i>				
April	53.9	45.1	8.8	January	52.8	45.2	7.6
May	54.7	46.3	8.4	February	52.7	45.5	7.2
June	56.3	47.7	8.6	March	52.4	45.6	6.8
July	57.0	47.7	9.3	April	53.3	46.7	6.6
August	56.7	47.8	8.9	May	54.0	48.3	5.7
September	55.2	48.1	7.1	June	55.7	49.8	5.9
October	54.8	47.4	7.4	July	56.0	50.4	5.6
November	53.9	46.3	7.6	August	55.8	50.5	5.3
December	53.2	46.1	7.1	September	54.3	49.8	4.5
				October	53.5	49.6	3.9
				November	53.3	49.4	3.9
				December	53.3	49.5	3.8

<sup>1</sup> Includes persons on public emergency work projects.

The proportion of the unemployed in the younger age group declined materially during 1941. Persons under 25 years of age accounted for 28.9 percent of the unemployed in December 1941, as compared with 34.4 percent in December of the preceding year. The proportion of the unemployed 54 years of age and over increased from 15.2 to 19.2 percent.

TABLE 2

Age

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TABLE 2.—Estimated Civilian Labor Force, Employment, and Unemployment, by Age Groups, October—December 1940 and October—December 1941<sup>1</sup>

Age and labor market status	1941			1940			Increase or decrease, December 1940 to December 1941
	Decem- ber	Novem- ber	October	Decem- ber	Novem- ber	October	
Number unemployed (millions)							
All age groups:							
Labor force	53.3	53.3	53.5	53.2	53.9	54.8	+0.1
Employed	49.5	49.4	49.6	46.1	46.3	47.4	+3.4
Unemployed	3.8	3.9	3.9	7.1	7.6	7.4	-3.3
Age 14-24 years:							
Labor force	11.2	11.3	11.5	11.5	12.0	12.2	-.3
Employed	10.1	10.1	10.2	9.1	9.4	9.7	+1.0
Unemployed	1.1	1.2	1.3	2.4	2.6	2.5	-1.3
Age 25-54 years:							
Labor force	33.8	33.7	33.5	33.5	33.8	34.4	.3
Employed	31.8	31.7	31.6	29.9	30.0	30.7	+1.9
Unemployed	2.0	2.0	1.9	3.6	3.8	3.7	-1.6
Age 55 years and over:							
Labor force	8.3	8.3	8.5	8.2	8.1	8.2	.1
Employed	7.6	7.6	7.8	7.1	6.9	7.0	.5
Unemployed	.7	.7	.7	1.1	1.2	1.2	-.4
Unemployment rate <sup>2</sup> (percent)							
All age groups	7.0	7.2	7.2	13.3	14.9	13.6	-6.3
14-24 years	9.7	10.6	11.0	21.4	21.8	20.8	-11.7
25-54 years	5.8	6.1	5.8	10.8	11.3	10.8	-5.0
55 years and over	8.7	7.8	7.9	13.4	14.4	14.6	-4.7
Percentage distribution of unemployed							
All age groups	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	0
14-24 years	28.9	30.9	32.5	34.4	34.4	34.2	-5.5
25-54 years	51.9	52.3	50.2	50.4	50.2	49.7	+1.5
55 years and over	19.2	16.8	17.3	15.2	15.4	16.1	+4.0

<sup>1</sup> All data exclude persons in institutions. Persons on public emergency work projects are included with the unemployed. Comparable data beginning with April 1940 appeared in Monthly Labor Review for October 1941 (p. 897) and for November 1941 (p. 1347).

<sup>2</sup> Unemployed as a percent of labor force in each age group.

# Recent Publications of Labor Interest

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FEBRUARY 1942

## Cooperative Movement

*Co-ops and the consumer crisis.* By Dexter Masters. (In Survey Graphic, New York, December 1941, pp. 682-686; illus.)

A discussion of the following questions: As prices go up and quality goes down, can the cooperative movement seize its opportunity to distribute goods more economically? And can it compete with big business in a period of limited consumer production?

*Cooperative legislation in Canada, 1941.* By J. E. O'Meara. (In Economic Annalist, Department of Agriculture of Canada, Ottawa, October 1941, pp. 68-74.)

*Farmer cooperation in northern Alabama: A physical inventory and appraisal of cooperative endeavor in sixteen counties.* By L. C. Salter and E. L. Morgan. Auburn, Ala., Alabama Polytechnic Institute, Agricultural Experiment Station, 1941. 52 pp., maps, charts. (Bull. 249.)

Covers 18 active cooperative associations (13 county exchanges doing both marketing and purchasing, 2 strawberry marketing associations, 2 cotton gins, and a dry-mix fertilizer association).

*Farmer cooperation in Southwest Virginia.* By E. L. Morgan and T. N. Gearreald. Blacksburg, Va., Virginia Polytechnic Institute, Agricultural Experiment Station, 1941. 46 pp., maps, charts. (Bull. 331.)

An analysis of 26 cooperative associations (6 purchasing associations, 13 livestock shipping associations, 3 wool pools, 1 strawberry marketing association, 1 association of breeders of purebred sheep and 1 of breeders of purebred bulls, and 1 association renting farm equipment), giving data on amount of business, working capital, income and expense, etc. Contains a short history of cooperation in the district, also conclusions and recommendations based upon the study.

*Yearbook of agricultural cooperation, 1941.* Edited by Horace Plunkett Foundation. London, P. S. King & Son, Ltd., 1941. 296 pp.

The British Empire and several other countries are represented.

*The church and credit unions.* By Benson Y. Landis. (In Information Service, Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America, New York, December 13, 1941, pp. 1-8.)

Gives a brief account of the 378 credit unions organized among members of local churches in the United States, an outline of the historical development of such organizations, and data on specific credit unions.

*Self-help cooperatives in Utah, 1935-41.* Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1941. 6 pp. (Serial No. R. 1376, reprint from August 1941 Monthly Labor Review.)

## Cost and Standards of Living

*Wages and cost of living in two World Wars.* By Witt Bowden. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1941. 24 pp., charts. (Serial No. R. 1394, reprint from November 1941 Monthly Labor Review.)

**EDITOR'S NOTE.**—The Bureau of Labor Statistics does not distribute the publications to which reference is made in this list, except those issued by the Bureau itself. For all others, please write to the respective publishing agencies mentioned.

*Cost of living of low-wage groups—women workers.* (In Southern California Business Review, University of Southern California, Bureau of Business Research, Los Angeles, October 1941, pp. 1-8.)

Results of a survey of cost of living of approximately 4,000 working women in the lower wage brackets in California.

*Adequate maintenance and protection of health for women workers in New York State, September 1940.* New York, State Department of Labor, Division of Women in Industry and Minimum Wage, 1941. 29 pp., charts; mimeographed.

The minimum annual cost of "adequate maintenance and protection of health" of working women in New York State in September 1940 was \$1,057.94 for the woman living as a member of a family, and \$1,170.20 for the woman living alone. No allowance for income tax is included. These cost figures are based on a budget which is priced annually for use in minimum-wage determinations. The total cost of the budget varied slightly according to size of community, being \$47 less in towns with 5,000 to 10,000 population than in the State as a whole, for the woman living at home, and \$40 less for the woman living alone.

*Cost of living of representative working class families.* Liverpool, University of Liverpool, Social Science Department, 1941. 27 pp.

Gives budgets of working-class families in Great Britain, and estimates of increases, October 1940 over certain earlier periods, in prices thereof.

*Living and office-operating costs in the Bahama Islands.* Washington, U. S. Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, December 1941. 3 pp. (International reference service No. 66.)

*Living and office-operating costs in Bermuda.* Washington, U. S. Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, December 1941. 3 pp. (International reference service No. 65.)

*Indexes of rents paid by wage earners and lower-salaried workers in 34 large cities, 1914 to 1941.* Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1942. 10 pp.; mimeographed.

*Precio medio de la habitación ofrecida en la ciudad de Buenos Aires, 1939-1940.* Córdoba, Argentina, Universidad Nacional de Córdoba, Instituto de Estadística, 1941. 16 pp., charts.

Statistics of average rents in Buenos Aires, by month, 1938 to 1940, and by year, 1912 to 1940.

### Economic and Social Problems

*The development of American industries: Their economic significance.* By John George Glover and William Bouck Cornell. New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1941. xxviii, 1005 pp., maps, charts, illus. Rev. ed.

Revision of a book first published in 1932. The various industries are described by specialists. There is an introductory chapter by the president of the American Federation of Labor, on "Labor's contribution to American industries."

*Free speech in the United States.* By Zechariah Chafee, Jr. Cambridge, Harvard University Press, 1941. xiv, 634 pp.

Designed to take the place of the author's volume on "Freedom of Speech," published in 1920. The first six chapters contain essentially the same materials as the earlier volume. The period since 1920 is covered by discussions of the more important laws and judicial proceedings affecting freedom of speech. Appendixes give summary information regarding the present status of Federal and State legislation. The bearing of freedom of speech on labor organizations and their activities is considered in various sections.

*Economic Shanghai: Hostage to politics, 1937-1941.* By Robert W. Barnett. New York, Institute of Pacific Relations, International Secretariat, 1941. 207 pp., plans, illus.

The book has a section on labor in Shanghai discussing working and living conditions, cost of living, unemployment, overcrowding by refugees, and labor organization and strikes, during the years 1937 to 1940.

*Nation and family: The Swedish experiment in democratic family and population policy.* By Alva Myrdal. New York, Harper & Bros., 1941. 441 pp., bibliography, charts.

In the judgment of the author, the problem centering around the family and the quantity and quality of the population will gradually take a dominant place among reconstruction problems.

### *Handicapped Workers*

*Employment of handicapped persons.* By John B. Knox. (In Management Record, National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., New York, December 1941, pp. 151-154.)

Data on practices of 68 companies in respect to employment of illiterates, ex-convicts, and physically handicapped persons, based on a survey by Alabama College (Montevallo, Ala.). Where careful selection procedures were used, the experience of companies which had employed handicapped persons seemed to have been uniformly good, but the writer states that social philosophies "may be more important than experience in determining policies" regarding their employment. However, he concludes that a sufficiently large number of corporations employ handicapped persons to "indicate that it is practical."

*Handicapped workers under the wage and hour law.* Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Wage and Hour Division, 1941. 3 pp.

*Reeducación profesional en Chile.* By Francisco Pérez. (In Trabajo y Previsión Social, Departamento del Trabajo y Previsión Social, México, D. F., September 1941, pp. 93-97.)

Summarizes Chilean legislative provisions under which vocational reeducation of injured workers is provided, gives a detailed account of an institution established by the President of the Republic for providing this vocational rehabilitation, and enumerates kinds of benefits provided for those being rehabilitated.

*Back to work? The case of the partially disabled worker.* By Hermann Levy. London, Fabian Society, 1941. 24 pp. (Research series, No. 56.)

The need for rehabilitation and other services in Great Britain for partially disabled workers is the subject of this pamphlet.

### *Industrial Accidents and Workmen's Compensation*

*Compensated accidents [in New York State, 1940].* (In Industrial Bulletin, New York State Department of Labor, Albany, October 1941, pp. 305-307.)

Handling of objects and tools caused the largest number of compensable accidents in New York State in 1940—29,921 of the total of 79,280—but were less severe than accidents due to falls, which caused nearly twice as many deaths and much greater time loss in connection with nonfatal injuries. The compensation cost for accidents from handling of objects and tools averaged \$219, less than half the average of \$454 per case for the 17,973 falls.

*A statistical study of all accident and occupational disease claims filed with Industrial Commission of Ohio during calendar year 1940 with summary of years 1931-1940 inclusive.* Columbus, Industrial Commission, 1941. 27 pp.

*Summary and analysis of accidents on steam railways in the United States subject to Interstate Commerce Act, calendar year 1940.* Washington, U. S. Interstate Commerce Commission, Bureau of Statistics, 1941. 124 pp., charts. (Accident bull. No. 109.)

*Some essential safety factors in tunneling.* By D. Harrington and S. H. Ash. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Mines, 1941. 61 pp., diagram, illus. (Bull. 439.)

### *Industrial Hygiene and Occupational Diseases*

*Industrial hygiene and occupational diseases.* New York, New York University, Center for Safety Education, 1941. Various paging, bibliography; mimeographed.

Course outline and digest of lectures conducted by the Center for Safety Education of New York University in cooperation with the National Conservation Bureau, New York City.

*Occupational diseases—diagnosis, medicolegal aspects, and treatment.* By Rutherford T. Johnstone, M. D. Philadelphia, W. B. Saunders Co., 1941. 558 pp., illus.

*Symposium on anthrax.* Harrisburg, Pa., Department of Health, Bureau of Industrial Hygiene, 1941. 45 pp.

The papers deal with an epidemiological study of anthrax in Philadelphia, a 20-year survey of anthrax in the United States, the treatment of anthrax, anthrax in the fur-felt hat industry, and the enforcement problem of the State Bureau of Inspection.

*Occupational and related dermatoses—abstracts from the literature for the years 1935 to 1939, inclusive.* By Louis Schwartz and Leon H. Warren. Washington, U. S. Public Health Service, 1941. 160 pp. (Public health bull. No. 266.)

*Mercury poisoning as a mining hazard.* By Sara J. Davenport and D. Harrington. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Mines, 1941. 27 pp., bibliography; mimeographed. (Information circular 7180.)

The bulletin gives the mode of entrance of mercury into the body, symptoms, pathologic effects, toxicity of mercury, and treatment and prevention of poisoning.

*The compensation of occupational diseases.* By L. Teleky. (In Journal of Industrial Hygiene and Toxicology, Baltimore, Md., October 1941, pp. 353-373.)

Reviews the progress in enacting compensation laws for occupational diseases in the different States and discusses the definitions of occupational diseases and of disability, type and scope of the laws, and the particular problems presented by skin diseases and by silicosis, asbestosis, and pneumoconiosis. A tabular statement shows the coverage for poisoning or injury by different substances or processes in England and Germany, and in 13 States of the United States and Puerto Rico.

### Industrial Relations

*Ideologies and American labor.* By Paul K. Crosser. New York, Oxford University Press, 1941. xvi, 221 pp.

Historical study of the philosophical and economic bases of American trade-unionism and labor problems.

*We work for the future: American Federation of Labor and national defense.* By William Green. Washington, American Federation of Labor, 1941. 72 pp.

Strikes in defense industries, jurisdictional disputes, protection of workers, welfare, defense migration, and woman defense workers, are among the matters discussed.

*Federal intervention in labor disputes and collective bargaining—the Hutcheson case.* By Ludwig Teller. (In Michigan Law Review, Ann Arbor, November 1941, pp. 24-48.)

Analysis of implications of the recent United States Supreme Court decision which deals with the legality of labor activities and objectives in relation to the Sherman, Clayton, and Norris-La Guardia Acts.

*Memorandum on strikes in the defense period.* Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1941. 13 pp.; mimeographed.

*Industrial history in wartime.* By Wal Hannington. London, Lawrence & Wishart, Ltd., 1941. 119 pp. (Marxist textbook series, No. 5.)

Includes a record of the shop stewards' movement in Great Britain and traces developments since the early period of capitalism.

### Industry Reports

*Labor standards and competitive market conditions in canned goods industry.* Washington, U. S. Women's Bureau, 1941. 34 pp. (Bull. No. 187.)

Four canned vegetables—spinach, pimientos, tomatoes, and green and wax beans—were covered by this survey, which was undertaken to obtain answers to the following questions: (1) To what extent are products sold outside the State in which canned? (2) To what extent do these canned vegetables compete in the major wholesale markets? (3) Under what price disadvantages are competing products marketed from places with different wage levels? and (4) Is there evidence that the expansion of the canning industry in low-wage regions leads to its curtailment where wages are high?

*Multiple-shift mechanical mining in some bituminous-coal mines (progress report 3).*  
By Albert L. Toenges and Earl R. Maize. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Mines, 1941. 43 pp.; mimeographed. (Information circular No. 7178.) Describes mechanized methods in individual mines.

*The iron and steel industry in South Africa.* By C. S. Richards. Johannesburg, Witwatersrand University Press, 1940. Various paging, charts, illus. A detailed study made with special reference to one large company, in relation to the Transvaal gold-mining industry. The survey covers the period ending December 1939.

*Filipino plantation workers in Hawaii.* By Edna Clark Wentworth. New York, Institute of Pacific Relations, American Council, 1941. 245 pp., charts, illus. (Studies of the Pacific, No. 7.)

Deals with incomes, expenditures, and living standards of Filipino families on a Hawaiian sugar plantation.

### Labor and Social Legislation

*Cases and materials on labor law.* Compiled by Charles O. Gregory. Chicago, University of Chicago Bookstore, 1941. 721 pp.

*Handbook of Federal labor legislation: Part II, Labor laws of general application.* Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Division of Labor Standards, 1941. 150 pp., loose-leaf. (Bull. No. 39, Part II.)

The first part of this bulletin deals with legislation pertaining to labor standards on Government contract work and work financed by the United States. Both parts are in loose-leaf form in order that insertions may be made to keep the handbook up to date.

*Reports of committees and resolutions adopted by eighth national conference on labor legislation, [Washington], November 12-14, 1941.* Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Division of Labor Standards, 1941. 23 pp. (Bull. No. 52-A.)

*"What the courts have said" in interpreting the National Labor Relations Act.* By Herbert O. Eby. Washington, Washington Legal Publications, 1941. 147 pp.; mimeographed.

Prepared as a ready-reference guide to decisions of the courts in the leading cases that have arisen under the National Labor Relations Act since April 1937, when the U. S. Supreme Court declared it constitutional. The cases have been classified into 14 chapters, each dealing with a major issue. Each chapter is prefaced by background material and the pertinent sections of the act.

*Viajantes y correedores de comercio—régimen legal de la ley 12651, exposición y comentario.* By Miguel Scolni. Buenos Aires, Ediciones Anaconda, 1940. 212 pp.

Treatise on the application of the Argentine law of October 10, 1940, protecting commercial travelers and regulating their activities, including discussion of coverage, remuneration, and limitation of responsibility of commercial travelers, and the provisions of other social legislation covering this occupation in the matter of paid vacations, dismissal, etc. The text of the law of October 10, 1940, is given in an appendix.

### Labor Organizations and Their Activities

*Proceedings of Bureau of Labor Statistics' second annual conference with research directors of national and international unions, Washington, D. C., June 19-20, 1941.* Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1941. 68 pp.; mimeographed.

*Organización sindical, asociaciones obreras y patronales [Argentina].* Buenos Aires, Ministerio del Interior, Departamento Nacional del Trabajo, 1941. 52 pp., processed. (Series B, Statistics and censuses, No. 9.)

Results of the second national census of associations of workers and employers in Argentina, showing their status on June 30, 1941, locations, fields of activity, affiliation to larger bodies, and membership. The text of the legislation authorizing censuses of such associations and governing their formation, and extracts from constitutions of associations, showing their aims and purposes, are included.

*Proceedings of second annual convention, Canadian Congress of Labor, Hamilton, Ontario, September 8-12, 1941.* [Ottawa?], Canadian Congress of Labor, 1941. 117 pp.

*The place of the Labor Party in British politics.* New York, British Library of Information, 1941. 4 pp.; mimeographed.

Reviews the rise of the Labor Party, its past and present activities and functions.

*The legal personality of Philippine labor unions.* By Cristeto O. Cimagala. (In *Philippine Law Journal*, Manila, October 1941, pp. 138-153.)

A study of the general legal status of labor unions in the Philippine Islands, in which the personality of the unions is copiously treated. The author explains the basic laws regulating labor organizations, and outlines the methods of instituting suits by or against labor unions. He also explains the basis of liability and powers of unions, especially as between unions and third persons and between unions and their members.

### Migration and Migratory Workers

*America's own refugees: Our 4,000,000 homeless migrants.* By Henry H. Collins, Jr. Princeton, N. J., Princeton University Press, 1941. 323 pp.

Much of the material in this book is based on the reports of the Tolan Committee of the House of Representatives, which investigated the interstate migration of destitute citizens, and on other official government sources.

*National defense migration.* Washington, 1941. 149 pp. (House of Representatives report No. 1553, 77th Cong., 1st sess.)

Second interim report of Select Committee Investigating National Defense Migration, House of Representatives, 77th Congress, 1st session, pursuant to a resolution (H. Res. 113) to inquire further into interstate migration of citizens, emphasizing present and potential consequences of migration caused by the national defense program. The report includes the Committee's recommendations on utilization of the Nation's industrial capacity and on labor supply in the war effort.

*Mexicans to Michigan.* By Carey McWilliams. (In *Common Ground*, Common Council for American Unity, Vol. 2, No. 1, New York, autumn 1941, pp. 5-18; illus.)

Describes recruitment in Texas of Mexican families for sugar-beet work in Michigan, methods of transportation, and living conditions and earnings of these workers in Michigan.

*The adjustment of new settlers in the Yakima Valley, Washington.* By Carl F. Reuss and Lloyd H. Fisher. Pullman, State College of Washington, Agricultural Experiment Station, 1941. 48 pp., charts. (Bull. No. 397.)

The report includes data on hired farm-labor requirements in the Yakima Valley, working population among the new settlers, and adjustment of new settlers as measured by earnings and employment from June 1938 to May 1939.

### Minimum Wage

*Analysis of minimum wage determinations of Secretary of Labor pursuant to Public Contracts Act of June 30, 1936.* Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Division of Public Contracts, 1941. 16 pp.; processed.

Determinations covered are those in effect as of November 3, 1941. Terms are presented in tabular form.

*Guaranteed living-wage provisions of State minimum-wage orders for women.* By Louise Stitt. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1941. 6 pp. (Serial No. R. 1364, reprint from September 1941 Monthly Labor Review.)

*O salário mínimo na lavoura paulista.* By Abelardo de Paula Brasil. (In *Legislação do Trabalho*, São Paulo, October 1941, pp. 425-440.)

Detailed study of the application of the minimum-wage legislation of Brazil to agricultural workers in the coffee, sugar-cane, banana, cotton, and other industries of the State of São Paulo, including information on welfare benefits and other conditions.

## Occupations

*A guidance bookshelf on occupations.* Washington, U. S. Office of Education, 1941. 26 pp.; processed.  
Lists 81 references.

*Occupational information and guidance bibliography, 1937-38.* Compiled by Pedro T. Orata. Washington, U. S. Office of Education, 1941. xi, 521 pp. (Vocational division bull. No. 212; Occupational information and guidance series No. 5.)

*The right job for you and how to get it.* By Esther Eberstadt Brooke. New York, Noble and Noble, Publishers, Inc., 1941. 304 pp.

Emphasizes the advantages of being one's self and the importance of using common sense in selecting the right job.

*A job in banking.* By Joseph J. Schroeder. Chicago, Science Research Associates, 1941. 49 pp., illus. (American job series, Occupational monograph No. 25.)

This survey of the banking field includes information on kinds of jobs, working conditions, requisite preparation for employment, trends, and prospects.

*Careers in the mineral industries: A vocational booklet for use in secondary schools.* By Thomas T. Read. New York, American Institute of Mining and Metallurgical Engineers, 1941. 31 pp., bibliography. Second revised edition.

*The public health nurse in action.* By Marguerite Wales. New York, Macmillan Co., 1941. xix, 437 pp.

Intended primarily for undergraduate nursing students who are preparing to specialize in public health work and for nurses who are doing graduate work in that field. In each chapter one phase of public health work is discussed followed by a group of informal case histories illustrating general principles, and a brief bibliography.

## Pensions

*Financing State and city pensions: Receipts, payments, and assets of pension funds of States and of cities over 100,000 population, 1938.* Washington, U. S. Bureau of the Census, 1941. 82 pp., charts; processed. (State and local government special study No. 15.)

A cross-sectional examination of the public-employee pension systems of the different States, and of the 94 cities having a population of 100,000 and over, for the year 1938. It deals with the basis for financing pensions, receipts, disbursements, assets, and State-local relations involving State pension administration on behalf of local governments and their employees.

*Twentieth annual report of Board of Actuaries of U. S. Civil Service Retirement and Disability fund, for fiscal year ended June 30, 1940.* Washington, 1941. 23 pp. (House of Representatives doc. No. 281, 77th Cong., 1st sess.)

The report gives a description of the main benefit and contribution provisions of the Civil Service Retirement Act, a statement of the membership of the retirement fund as of June 30, 1940, and an estimate of the appropriations which should be made by the Government to support the plan.

Data on operations of the Federal employees' retirement system during the fiscal year 1939-40 were published in the October 1941 Monthly Labor Review (p. 909).

*Report of Departmental [Home Department, Great Britain] Committee on Police Widows' Pensions.* London, 1941. 52 pp. (Cmd. 6312.)

## Personnel Management

*Management and morale.* By F. J. Roethlisberger. Cambridge, Mass., Harvard University Press, 1941. xxii, 194 pp.

A discussion of the factors involved in human relationships within business and industrial organizations.

*Personnel policies and practices survey.* By P. M. Jones. (In *Personnel Journal*, New York, October 1941, pp. 122-128.)

Summary data from a survey by Mississippi State College of personnel activities in Mississippi industries. The report covers 69 firms, with 21,747 employees, and gives information on number having personnel directors, employment methods followed, wage-payment plans and wage determinants, education and housing of workers, labor turn-over, and employment stabilization.

*Effective foremanship.* Edited by Harold B. Maynard. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1941. 263 pp.

The volume contains articles by 15 contributors on various phases of industrial management which it is considered are essential for the modern foreman to understand.

### Production

*Finished commodities since 1879: Output and its composition.* By William H. Shaw. New York, National Bureau of Economic Research, 1941. 49 pp., charts. (Occasional paper 3.)

Preliminary report of an extensive study by the National Bureau of Economic Research. It is estimated that the total output of finished commodities increased from 1879 to 1939 at an annual rate of 3.2 percent. Population, in contrast, increased at an average annual rate of only 1.3 percent. The study includes analyses of shifts in the proportions of types of goods, notably of perishable and durable goods, and discusses short-term fluctuations as well as long-term changes.

*The relation between factory employment and output since 1899.* By Solomon Fabricant. New York, National Bureau of Economic Research, 1941. 39 pp., charts. (Occasional paper 4.)

An advance summary of data on manufacturing to appear in an extensive study of productivity by the staff of the National Bureau of Economic Research. It is estimated that, in terms of number of workers per unit produced, employment in 1940 was only 44 percent of employment in 1899, and that in terms of man-hours per unit of output employment in 1940 was less than a third of employment in 1899. The study emphasizes the significance of this change in making possible an advance in the quantity of goods and services available.

*Curtailment of automobile production in World War I.* By Irving Bernstein. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1941. 21 pp.; mimeographed.

*Food production in Western Europe: An economic survey of agriculture in six countries.* By P. Lamartine Yates. London, New York, etc., Longmans, Green and Co., 1940. 572 pp., maps, diagrams, illus.

A comprehensive account of food production in six countries—Denmark, the Netherlands, Belgium, France, Switzerland, and Germany—prior to the outbreak of the present war. The farming systems in the different countries are described and such problems as land tenure and indebtedness, cooperation, marketing, mechanization, and the rural exodus are discussed. The different forms of State assistance developed during the last 10 years are analyzed, and a policy is presented for the reorganization of agriculture more effectively to serve the public interest.

### Social Security

*From relief to social security: The development of the new public welfare services and their administration.* By Grace Abbott. Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1941. 388 pp.

Collection of papers and addresses by the late Grace Abbott, covering, with one earlier exception, the period from 1929 to 1939, and dealing with public welfare in relation to relief and social security.

*South America builds social security.* By Oswald Stein. (In *Social Security*, New York, November 1941, pp. 3-4.)

Reviews social-security developments in South America as a whole; and summarizes briefly the principal provisions of certain social-security legislation now in force in Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Ecuador, Peru, Uruguay, and Venezuela.

*Estudio sobre la Caja de Seguro Obligatorio en Chile.* By José María García. (In Boletín del Departamento Nacional del Trabajo, Bogotá, Colombia, April–December 1940, pp. 299–336.)

A historical and statistical account of social insurance in Chile is followed by a detailed study of the Chilean Compulsory Insurance Fund, treating, among other topics, the organization and administration of the fund, classes of insured persons, contributions, application of the insurance to rural workers, and maternity and child-welfare benefits.

*La reforma de la ley 4054 del seguro obligatorio de enfermedad, invalidez, vejez y muerte*, by Julio Bustos A.; *Informe actuarial sobre el proyecto de reformas a las leyes Nos. 4054 y 4055*, by Rolando González B. (In Previsión Social Ministerio de Salubridad, Previsión y Asistencia Social, Departamento de Previsión Social, Santiago de Chile, May–June 1941, pp. 375–401, 402–436.)

The first article is a careful study, by the chief of the Chilean Social Welfare Bureau, of a proposal for the reform of the Chilean law on compulsory insurance, covering sickness, invalidity, old age, and survivors' benefits, on the basis of experience since enactment of the law in 1935. The second article is an actuarial study of proposed reforms, by an actuary of the Social Insurance Bureau.

*Report on enforcement of Old Age Pensions Act, of Blind Persons Aid Act, and of Needy Mothers' Assistance Act [Quebec]*. Quebec, Department of Labor, 1941. 47 pp., charts.

Contains statistics of old-age and blind persons' pensions, and assistance to needy mothers, in the Province of Quebec for the period 1936 to 1940.

### Wages and Hours of Labor

*Present price and wage trends in the United States*. By Isador Lubin, Commissioner of Labor Statistics. (In Labor Information Bulletin, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Washington, December 1941, pp. 1–4, charts; also reprinted.)

*Report on salary and wage trends in various cities*. By Norman N. Gill. Milwaukee, Wis., Municipal Reference Library, 1941. 17 pp.; mimeographed.

Results of an inquiry into action taken in 1941 and to be taken in 1942 in regard to changes in salaries and wages of city employees, with particular reference to increases based on the rising cost of living.

*Wages and cost of living in two World Wars*. By Witt Bowden. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1941. 24 pp., charts. (Serial No. R. 1394, reprint from November 1941 Monthly Labor Review.)

*Union wages and hours in printing trades, June 1, 1941*. By Kermit B. Mohn. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1941. 30 pp., charts. (Serial No. R. 1409, reprint from December 1941 Monthly Labor Review.)

*Earnings and hours in rice mills, 1941*. By Bernard L. Smith. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1941. 14 pp. (Serial No. R. 1403, reprint from November 1941 Monthly Labor Review.)

### Wartime Conditions and Policies

*American commodity markets after 2 years of war*. By Saul Nelson. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1941. 32 pp., charts. (Serial No. R. 1393, reprint from November 1941 Monthly Labor Review.)

*Conservation—evolution of policies and procedures, 1917–18*. By Stella Stewart. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1941. 54 pp.; mimeographed.

*Economic consequences of the second World War*. By Lewis L. Lorwin. New York, Random House, 1941. xvii, 510 pp.

The author contrasts the Nazi and the democratic systems of society. He outlines the Nazi plans for the future of the world, contrasts the world's future under a democratic victory, and discusses the steps that he deems immediately possible and desirable for planning post-war readjustment on a democratic basis.

*Utilization of plant facilities under national defense program.* By Morris Levine. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1941. 8 pp. (Serial No. R. 1396, reprint from November 1941 Monthly Labor Review.)

*Canadian war economics.* Edited by J. F. Parkinson. Toronto, University of Toronto Press, 1941. 191 pp.

Collection of studies based on material originally presented in a series of lectures on "the Canadian economy and the war," given in the first 3 months of 1941 at the University of Toronto. Later data have been added by the contributors, who include Government officials, economists, the editor of the Monthly Review of the Bank of Nova Scotia, and the president of the Trades and Labor Congress of Canada.

*The Cambridge evacuation survey: A wartime study in social welfare and education.* Edited by Susan Isaacs and others. London, Methuen & Co., Ltd., 1941. 235 pp., bibliography.

The attitudes of the families receiving evacuated children, of the evacuees themselves, and of the teachers were studied.

*The women of England.* By Margaret Biddle. Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1941. 99 pp., illus.

Describes each of the organized British women's war services and the stamina of individual women in facing their everyday problems.

### White-Collar Workers

*The white-collar worker—industry's forgotten men and women.* (In *Modern Industry*, New York, November 15, 1941, pp. 25-28; illus.)

The article compares the working conditions and economic position of white-collar workers and production workers, and shows that frequently the latter are better off from the standpoint of both earnings and working conditions.

*Emergency salary administration.* New York, American Management Association, 1941. 32 pp. (Office management series No. 95.)

Three papers dealing, respectively, with problems encountered in a survey of office salaries, aligning salaries with the wage-and-hour law, and salary adjustments during the emergency.

*Salary evaluation.* By Asa S. Knowles and Thomas McAuley. (In *Personnel*, New York, November 1941, pp. 134-164; also reprinted by Bureau of Business Research, Northeastern University, Boston, Mass.)

A system for appraising salaried jobs is outlined, based on information obtained from 45 firms which have definite plans of salary evaluation in operation.

*Statistics of State school systems, 1939-40 (preliminary report).* By David T. Blose. Washington, U. S. Office of Education, [1941]. 12 pp.; processed. (Circular No. 205.)

Includes statistics of average annual salaries of instructional staff members in 1929-30, 1937-38, and 1939-40.

### General Reports

*Annual report on working of [Indian] Factories Act (XXV of 1934) in Burma for year 1940.* Rangoon, Chief Inspector of Factories, 1941. 30 pp.

The report contains statistics of number of factories, number of workers, and industrial accidents for the year 1940.

[*Annual report, for year 1940, on operation of Factory and Workshop Acts, Ireland, 1901-1920.*] Dublin, Department of Industry and Commerce, 1941. 13 pp.

Covers factory inspection, accidents, and related information.

*Annual report of Labor Department, Malaya, for year 1940.* By C. Wilson. Kuala Lumpur, Federated Malay States, 1941. 9 pp.

Labor conditions, industrial disputes, and wages, are among the subjects reported on.